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CAREER THRESHOLDS

Volume 3

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**Manpower Research
Monograph No. 16**

1971

CAREER THRESHOLDS

**A longitudinal study of the educational and
labor market experience of male youth**

Volume 3

**U.S. DEPARTMENT OF LABOR
J.D. Hodgson, Secretary
Manpower Administration**

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They may be obtained from the Superintendent of Documents, U.S. Government Printing Office, Washington, D.C. 20402 at the prices indicated above.

This volume is a brief progress report on a longitudinal study of the educational and labor market experience of young men. In early 1965, the Center for Human Resource Research, under a contract with the United States Department of Labor, began the planning of longitudinal studies of the labor market experience of four subsets of the United States population: men 45 to 59 years of age, women 30 to 44 years of age, and young men and women 14 to 24 years of age.

Cost considerations dictated limiting the population covered; given that constraint, these four groups were selected for study because each faces special labor market problems that are challenging to policy makers. In the case of the older male group these problems are reflected in a tendency for unemployment, when it occurs, to be of longer-than-average duration and in the fact that average annual incomes of males decline continuously with advancing age beyond the mid-forties. In the case of the older of the two groups of women the special problems are those associated with reentry into the labor force on the part of a great many married women after their children no longer require their continuous presence at home. For the young men and women, of course, the problems are those revolving around the process of occupational choice and include both the preparation for work and the frequently difficult period of accommodation to the labor market when formal schooling has been completed.

While the more-or-less unique problems of each of the subject groups to some extent dictate separate orientations for the four studies, there is, nevertheless, a general conceptual framework and a general set of objectives common to all of them. Each of the four studies views the experience and behavior of individuals in the labor market as resulting from an interaction between the characteristics of the environment and a variety of demographic, economic, social, and attitudinal characteristics of the individual. Each study seeks to identify those characteristics that appear to be most important in explaining variations in several important facets of labor market experience: labor force participation, unemployment experience, and various types of labor mobility. Knowledge of this kind may be expected to make an important contribution to our understanding of the way in which labor markets operate and thus to be useful for the development and implementation of appropriate labor market policies.

For each of the four population groups described above, a national probability sample of the noninstitutional civilian population has been drawn by the Bureau of the Census. Members of each sample are being surveyed periodically for five years. According to present plans, the

last round of interviews will occur in 1971 for the two male groups, in 1972 for the older group of women, and in early 1973 for the younger group of women. Reports on the first two surveys of the young men (Career Thresholds, Volume I, 1969, and Volume II, 1970), the first and second surveys of the older men (The Pre-Retirement Years, Volume I, 1968, and Volume II, 1970), the first survey of the older of the two groups of women (Dual Careers, Volume I, 1970) and the first survey of the young girls (Years for Decision, Volume I, 1971) have already been published.

The present report, the third in the series on the young men, summarizes some of the findings of the third round of interviews with that cohort that were conducted in the autumn of 1968. Based exclusively on a set of tabulations that were specified prior to our having seen the results of the second survey, this report is intended simply to describe the magnitude and patterns of change that occurred in the labor market status of the youth during the two-year period between the first and third surveys. More intensive analyses of the data will be made at a later date, but the unique nature of some of the data already available has argued for its immediate publication.

Both the overall study and the present report are the product of the joint effort of a great many persons, not all of whom are even known to us. The research staff of the Center has enjoyed the continuous expert and friendly collaboration of personnel of the Bureau of the Census, which, under a separate contract with the Department of Labor, is responsible for developing the samples, conducting all of the interviews, processing the data, and preparing the tabulations we have requested.

We are especially indebted to Daniel Levine who is Chief of the Demographic Surveys Division; to George Hall, who until recently served as Assistant Division Chief and worked closely with us from the inception of the longitudinal studies; to Rachel Cordesman, who has been closely involved with the project; to Richard Dodge, Marvin Thompson, and Alan Jones, each of whom served at sometime as our principal point of contact with the Bureau; and to Marie Argana, currently Chief of the Longitudinal Surveys Branch, who has contributed much time and thought to all of the longitudinal studies. We wish also to acknowledge our indebtedness to James Johnson and the staff of the Field Division, who were responsible for the collection of the data; to David Lipscomb and his staff of the Systems Division for editing and coding the interview schedules; and to Richard Bartlett, Larry Folk, Robert Goodson, and their associates for the computer work.

The advice and counsel of many persons in the Department of Labor have been very helpful to us both in designing the study and in interpreting its findings. Without in any way implicating them in whatever deficiencies may exist in this report, we wish to acknowledge especially the continuous interest and support of Howard Rosen, Director of the Office of Research and Development and the valuable advice provided by Stuart Garfinkle and

Jacob Schiffman, who, as our principal contacts in the Office of Research and Development, have worked closely with us from the outset.

The authors wish to acknowledge the valuable contribution of other members of the Center's staff. Special mention must be made of the contributions of Joseph Davis and Constantine Karmas, who prepared many of the tables; of Betsy Schmidt and Ellen Mumma, who were responsible for preparing tables, checking the manuscript, and maintaining the necessary liaison with the Census Bureau; and of Dortha Gilbert and Kandy Bell, who typed the manuscript.

The Ohio State University
May 1971

Andrew I. Kohen
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I INTRODUCTION

How much change occurs during a period of two years in the educational and labor market status of young men? To what extent do they leave or return to school, revise their educational and/or occupational goals, and change jobs? What are the dimensions of the unemployment which they experience? In what respect do young men with volatile educational and labor market experiences differ from those whose experiences are stable? This report is addressed to questions such as these.

The report is based on data gathered in the first, second, and third stages of a five-year longitudinal study of the cohort of young men in the national civilian noninstitutional population who were 14 to 24 years of age at the time of the initial (Autumn 1966) interviews.¹ The results of the initial and second surveys have been reported in the first two volumes of this series.² The present document is intended as a further progress report on the longitudinal study. Its main purpose is to describe the magnitudes and patterns of change that have occurred during the two years between the first and third surveys, along with some of those between the second and third. We focus principally on changes in educational and labor market status, examining changes in other characteristics insofar as they are considered to have important effects on experience in school or in the labor market.

* This chapter was written by Andrew I. Kohen with the assistance of Joseph M. Davis.

1 For a description of the sample design, see Appendix B.

2. Herbert S. Parnes, Robert C. Miljus, Ruth S. Spitz, and Associates, Career Thresholds: A Longitudinal Study of the Educational and Labor Market Experience of Male Youth 14 to 24 Years of Age, Vol. I (Columbus: The Ohio State University, Center for Human Resource Research, 1969); Frederick A. Zeller, John R. Shea, Andrew I. Kohen, and Jack A. Meyer, Career Thresholds: A Longitudinal Study of the Educational and Labor Market Experience of Male Youth, Vol. II (Columbus: The Ohio State University, Center for Human Resource Research, 1970).

The remainder of this chapter deals briefly with each of the following topics: changes in the size and composition of the sample of young men, movements into and out of the formal school system, changes in the educational and occupational aspirations of students, and changes in labor force and employment status experienced by young men between the first and third surveys. Chapter 2 focuses on stability and change in the labor force and employment status of out-of-school youth--i.e., (1) those who have not been enrolled in school since the surveys began, and (2) those who were enrolled during the first year but were out of school at the time of the 1967 and 1968 interviews. As well as being descriptive, the chapter contains an analysis of the correlates of changes in labor force participation and unemployment rates.

Chapter 3 continues the analysis of unemployment experience of young men who have been out of school continuously since the original interview. However, the analysis is not longitudinal in the sense of comparing experiences at two points in time. Rather, the investigation is conducted in terms of the cumulative duration and spells of unemployment over the two-year period between the first and third surveys. Chapter 4 focuses on another aspect of change in labor market status of out-of-school youth by examining their movement among employers, occupations, and geographic areas during the two-year period between the 1966 and 1968 surveys. In addition, it contains an examination of average changes in hourly rate of pay of young men who were employed at both the beginning and end of the period. Chapter 5 summarizes briefly the major findings and considers possible policy implications and areas for further research.

II ATTRITION FROM THE SAMPLE

Of the 5,225 members of the sample interviewed in 1966, 4,339 were reinterviewed in 1968. Approximately one-half of those not reinterviewed in 1968 were also not part of the sample in 1967. The sample has thus diminished by about one-sixth (16.7 percent of the whites and 19.7 percent of the blacks).³ However, this proportion considerably overstates any error involved in using the sample to represent the national civilian population of men 16 to 26 years of age in 1968 because nearly three-fifths of the noninterviewees had entered the armed forces.⁴ Less than 3 percent

3 In this report the term "blacks" refers exclusively to Negroes; "whites" refers to Caucasians. Thus, there is a difference in terminology between this report and the first two volumes of this series in which "blacks" referred to the group now referred to in U.S. Government reports as "Negro and other races." Since Negroes constitute over 90 percent of the latter group, comparison of the findings between this and earlier reports should not be affected.

4 Nevertheless, absolute figures in this report clearly cannot be construed to be accurate estimates of the civilian noninstitutional population as of 1968.

of the initial sample refused to continue their participation in the survey, another 3 percent could not be located by the Census interviewers, and an additional 1 percent were not interviewed for other reasons.⁵

As would be expected, the likelihood of dropping out of the sample for each of the several reasons mentioned above varies systematically according to a number of characteristics of the young men. Irrespective of color, young men who were out of school in 1966 were more likely than those who were students to have dropped from the sample as of 1968. In general, but especially among nonstudents, blacks had a somewhat higher rate of attrition from the sample than whites. In neither of those instances is the difference attributable to a difference in the rate of entrance into the armed forces. Among whites refusal was more common than "disappearance" (2.8 versus 1.9 percent). Among blacks the opposite was true; the "disappearance rate" was two-and-one-half times the refusal rate (5.9 versus 2.2 percent).

A detailed breakdown of the attrition rate by selected demographic, social, and economic characteristics is presented in Tables 1A-1 to 1A-5. Among young men out of school at the time of the first interview, attrition rates were extremely high for those who were out of the labor force during the survey week (47.3 percent for whites and 31.8 percent for blacks) and above average for those whose most recent job was as a nonfarm laborer (Table 1A-3). Higher-than-average rates of noninterview due to refusal characterized unemployed whites, and blacks in nonfarm laborer jobs.

Several aspects of the attrition between the 1967 and 1968 surveys are also noteworthy. The likelihood of a young man not being interviewed in 1968 was more than twice as great for those who left school between the 1966 and 1967 surveys as for those who were enrolled both years (Table 1A-4). That difference is largely, although not solely, a result of the former group's higher rate of entrance into the armed services. Among youth enrolled both years, a lower-than-average rate of attrition characterized those who aspired to pursue their educations beyond the bachelor's degree level. For young men out of school both years, above-average attrition rates typified those who had never been married, those with a I-A Selective Service classification in 1967, and those who had changed county (SMSA) of residence between 1966 and 1967 (Table 1A-5). By and large, we do not expect that the attrition from the sample will bias our findings. In the few instances where it may, interpretation of the data will take attrition into account.

5 These reasons include temporary absence from the home, and death.

Discontinuation of formal schooling is a major change which occurs in the life of virtually all young men. Obviously, the likelihood of his leaving school increases as a youth grows older. Thus, despite secularly rising rates of matriculation into college, it was expected that the enrollment rate of our cohort would decline precipitously as the longitudinal survey progressed. Between the 1966 and 1968 surveys the enrollment rate for whites and blacks declined from 61 percent and 53 percent to 46 and 36 percent, respectively (Table 1.1). The widening of the intercolor difference as the cohort ages is entirely consistent with the cross-sectional observation that the enrollment rate difference between whites and blacks is greater among men in their twenties than among teenagers.⁶ However, as the data in Table 1.1 indicate, the transition from school to work is not always a simple matter of leaving school and embarking upon a lifetime career. More than one in eight whites and one in twenty-five blacks who were not enrolled at the date of the initial survey returned to school for some time during the subsequent two years.⁷ Expressed as proportions of the entire cohort, these figures represent slightly more than 5 percent of the whites and 2 percent of the blacks.

Clearly, discontinuation of schooling has different implications depending on the point in the educational process at which it occurs--e.g., prior to entering high school, prior to high school graduation, upon high school graduation, etc. Knowing the extent to which youngsters leave school at various points is the initial step in understanding why they do so. Considering only those youth who were enrolled in grades nine through eleven in 1967 and who were interviewed both in 1967 and 1968, high school dropout rates for whites and blacks in the one-year period were 6 and 9 percent, respectively (Table 1.2).⁸ However, this

6 Parnes, et al., Career Thresholds, Vol. I, pp. 17-18.

7 These fractions probably understate the rate of temporary interruption of education because we exclude from the sample young men who left school subsequent to the first survey to enter the armed forces. Completion of a normal tour of service would prohibit such a respondent from returning to our sample until the fourth (1969) survey.

8 Although these rates undoubtedly underestimate the rates that would emerge if we had interviewed the entire sample again in 1968, the biases are not substantial, as calculations in an earlier volume indicate. Zeller, et al., Career Thresholds, Vol. II, p. 3, n. 7. On the other hand, the rates shown probably overstate the total high school dropout rates since those who were seniors in 1967 are omitted from the calculations and the rate of discontinuation without graduation is very small among that group.

Table 1.1 Comparative School Enrollment Status 1966 through 1968, by Color: Youth Who Were Interviewed in 1966, 1967 and 1968^a

(Percentage distribution)

Comparative school enrollment status 1966 through 1968	WHITES		BLACKS	
	Percent of subtotal	Percent of total	Percent of subtotal	Percent of total
<u>Enrolled, 1966</u>	100	61	100	53
Enrolled, 1967 and 1968	69	42	64	34
Enrolled, 1967; not enrolled, 1968	18	11	19	10
Not enrolled, 1967 and 1968	13	8	17	9
Not enrolled 1967; enrolled, 1968	1	0*	1	0*
<u>Not enrolled, 1966</u>	100	39	100	47
Not enrolled, 1967 and 1968	87	34	96	45
Other	13	5	4	2
<u>Total</u>		100		100
Enrolled, 1968		46		36
Not enrolled, 1968		54		64
Total number (thousands)		11,529		1,495

*Percentage is 0.1 to 0.5.

a Unless otherwise noted, tables in this chapter refer to respondents who were 16 to 26 years of age in 1968.

Table 1.2 Dropout Rate, by Grade Attending in 1967, Age in 1968, and Color: Youth Enrolled in in Grades 9 through 11 in 1967

Grade attending in 1967 and age in 1968	WHITES		BLACKS	
	Total number (thousands)	Percent not enrolled in 1968	Total number (thousands)	Percent not enrolled in 1968
<u>9th</u>				
16	120	12	29	10
17 or older	57	a	26	16
Total or average	176	16	54	13
<u>10th</u>				
16	587	3	83	4
17 or older	169	23	39	10
Total or average	756	7	122	8
<u>11th</u>				
16	659	1	50	2
17	524	4	77	5
18 or older	123	13	63	21
Total or average	1,306	3	190	9
<u>Total 9th - 11th</u>				
16	1,366	3	162	4
17	695	7	120	8
18 or older	178	24	85	23
Total or average	2,238	6	366	9

a Percent not shown where base represents fewer than 25 sample cases.

intercolor difference in school retention does not prevail in all age-grade categories. The three-times-higher dropout rate for blacks than for whites in the eleventh grade in 1967 is largely attributable to the intercolor difference in age distribution. That is, proportionately more blacks than whites in the eleventh grade (one-third versus one-tenth) were 18 years of age or older, and the rate of school-leaving prior to graduation is exceedingly high in that age group. In contrast to the eleventh graders, the retention rate among black high school freshmen appears to be at least as high as, if not slightly higher than, that among their white counterparts.

The data for both color groups are generally consistent with the widely held hypothesis that the probability of leaving high school prior to graduation is positively related to age and negatively related to grade in school (Table 1.2). Among white 16-year olds the dropout rate for tenth graders is three times that of juniors; the corresponding ratio for blacks is two-to-one. For both color groups the dropout rate among those 18 and older is nearly one in four as compared with less than one in twenty among 16 year olds. Finally, the data provide some support for the generalization that high school dropouts tend to come from families of lower socioeconomic status (Table 1.3). However, in contrast to our discussion in an earlier volume, controlling for family income does not appear to decrease the intercolor difference in dropout rates.⁹

Table 1.3 Dropout Rate, by Family Income in 1968 and Color: Youth Enrolled in Grades 9 through 11 in 1967

Family income in 1968	WHITES		BLACKS	
	Total number (thousands)	Percent not enrolled 1968	Total number (thousands)	Percent not enrolled 1968
Less than \$6,000	443	8	243	10
\$6,000 - 9,999	756	6	86	9
\$10,000 - 14,999	612	6	34	11
\$15,000 or more	417	2	7	a
Total or average	2,238	6	366	9

a Percent not shown where base represents fewer than 25 sample cases.

9 Ibid, pp. 5-7.

The sharpest discontinuity in retention in the formal educational process occurs at the end of 12 years of schooling. In addition, as we have illustrated in an earlier report, the relationship between family income and continuation of schooling is much more pronounced at this juncture than at the several points prior to high school graduation. Although there is a marked difference between the color groups in the proportion of high school graduates going on to college, our longitudinal data indicate a substantial narrowing of the difference even from one year to the next. Surprisingly, the narrowing occurred both because of a rise in the percent of black graduates who enter college immediately after graduation and because of a decline in the corresponding proportion among whites. Our earlier report showed that 64 and 38 percent, respectively, of white and black 1966 high school seniors continued on to college in 1967.¹⁰ However, the comparable proportions of 1968 high school graduates are 56 percent and 42 percent (Table 1.4). Furthermore, the change in matriculation rates appears to have occurred within middle and upper income classes for both color groups. Our data for the period between 1966 and 1967 indicate that 70 percent of white youngsters from families with annual incomes of \$6,000 or more continue on to college, but for the 1967-68 period even those from families with incomes of \$15,000 or more do not have a matriculation rate that high. At the current time we have no plausible explanation for these surprising differences.

Table 1.4 College Entrance Rate, by Family Income in 1968 and Color:
Youth Who Graduated from High School in 1968 ^a

Total family income, 1968	WHITES		BLACKS	
	Total number (thousands)	Percent enrolled as college freshmen in 1968	Total number (thousands)	Percent enrolled as college freshmen in 1968
Less than \$6,000	127	42	56	38
\$6,000 - 9,999	375	53	29	50
\$10,000 - 14,999	351	58	8	b
\$15,000 or more	275	65	9	b
Total or average	1,129	56	102	42

a Includes only those living with family members other than wife.

b Percent not shown were base represents fewer than 25 sample cases.

10 Ibid, pp. 7-8.

IV ASPIRATION CHANGES AMONG STUDENTS

Intimately related to understanding change in educational and labor market experiences is an understanding of the process by which youth change their career goals. Our first and second reports on this cohort of young men have indicated several issues in the context of goal formation and revision which are deserving of further research.¹¹ In this brief section we report additional descriptive evidence concerning the extent and correlates of goal revision without attempting intensive analysis.¹² We comment also on the degree to which current results are consistent with findings reported in our first discussion of educational goal revision.

Changes in Educational Goals

Similar to what we found before, of young men who were enrolled in school in both 1967 and 1968, three in ten revised their educational goal during the intervening year (Table 1.5). Among whites there is some evidence that the likelihood of revision increases in step with progress through the school system, but among blacks the proportion who made revisions is virtually the same at each grade level. On the other hand, for both color groups, the fraction with increased aspirations is positively related to grade in school. As should be expected, since there are effective upper and lower bounds to the aspiration spectrum, those with low initial goals were more likely than those with high initial goals to have made revisions upward and the reverse is true regarding downward revisions. In general, the least stable goals were held by those who, in 1967, aspired to completion of only two years of college.¹³

Focusing on high school students whose 1967 goal was completion of 16 or more years of schooling, some interesting relationships are apparent. Among whites, young men who began the freshman year of college in 1968 exhibit a greater likelihood than those who were still in high school to raise their educational aspirations (19 percent versus 7 percent). Although the same is not true for blacks, the entering black freshman was far less likely than his counterpart still in high school to lower his goals (8 percent as compared to 20 percent).

¹¹ Parnes, et al., Career Thresholds, Vol. I, pp. 163-86; Zeller, et al., Career Thresholds, Vol. II, pp. 61-76.

¹² Our efforts are limited in this manner because some relevant information (e.g., a measure of mental ability) crucial to multivariate analysis, are not available at the time of this writing.

¹³ We are uncertain of the extent to which aspiring to two years of college actually means aspiring to completion of a junior college program.

Table 1.5 Proportion Changing Educational Goal between 1967 and 1968, by Direction of Change, Grade Attending in 1968, Educational Goal in 1967, and Color: Youth Enrolled in High School in 1967 and Enrolled in High School or College in 1968

Grade attending in 1968 and educational goal in 1967	WHITES				BLACKS			
	Total number (thousands)	Percent changing goal between 1967 and 1968			Total number (thousands)	Percent changing goal between 1967 and 1968		
		Upward	Downward	Total		Upward	Downward	Total
<u>10th</u>								
Total	147	4	8	12	46	5	24	29
<u>11th</u>								
High school graduation	168	21	0	21	41	15	2	17
College 2	85	b	b	b	12	b	b	b
College 4 or more	446	8	13	21	59	6	28	34
Total or average	698	12	12	24	112	13	17	30
<u>12th</u>								
High school graduation	241	23	0	23	33	32	0	32
College 2	166	25	29	54	38	18	23	41
College 4 or more	848	7	17	24	102	6	15	21
Total or average	1,255	13	15	28	172	14	14	28
<u>College 1</u>								
College 2	75	b	b	b	7	b	b	b
College 4 or more	537	19	12	31	35	9	8	17
Total or average ^a	633	26	10	36	42	21	7	28
<u>Total or average</u>								
High school graduation	512	22	0	22	94	20	1	21
College 2	338	29	23	52	62	28	18	46
College 4 or more	1,884	11	14	25	216	6	21	27
Total or average	2,734	15	13	28	372	13	16	29

- a Total includes a few respondents whose 1967 aspiration was high school graduation.
b Percent not shown where base represents fewer than 25 sample cases.

One of the puzzling results of our initial study of educational goal changing was that among black youth aspiring to college graduation there was no consistent relationship between family income level and downward revision of aspirations, although a uniformly negative association was observed among corresponding white youth.¹⁴ This intercolor difference was sufficiently intriguing to warrant further investigation, and the data in Table 1.6 offer some additional perspectives on it. To begin with, the regularity of the association between income level and stable aspirations is once again apparent among white high school students.¹⁵ Second, for blacks there appears to be a parabolic relationship between family income and percent revising educational goal (or percent revising downward). That is, we continue to observe considerable tenacity among low income black youth with regard to maintaining "unrealistic" educational aspirations.

Changes in Occupational Aspirations

In the initial interview the young men in our sample were asked to identify the kind of work that they would like to be doing at age 30. On the basis of the responses by those who were enrolled in high school at the time, we concluded that it was virtually certain that the occupational desires of substantial numbers of them would not be fulfilled, since nearly half of the youth aspired to professional-technical occupations.¹⁶ Thus, we anticipated that there would be substantial revision of occupational aspirations, particularly downward, as the cohort aged, progressed through educational systems, and entered the labor market on a full-time basis. This section is devoted to a brief examination of

14 For an explanation of the reasoning underlying the hypothesized negative relationship and the actual results see Zeller, et al., Career Thresholds, Vol. II, pp. 66-67.

15 Although the data indicate a positive association between family income and downward revision of goals among white college freshmen, this is probably a statistical artifact. That is, those in the group with family income of \$15,000 or more were more likely than those in the group with family income of less than \$10,000 to aspire to the maximum goal on our measurement scale (i.e., 17 or more years of school). Clearly, revision of that goal can only be downward.

16 Parnes, et al., Career Thresholds, Vol. I, pp. 172-73.

Table 1.6 Proportion Changing Educational Goal between 1967 and 1968, by Direction of Change, Grade Attending in 1968, Family Income in 1967, and Color: Youth Enrolled in High School in 1967 and Enrolled in High School or College in 1968 Who Aspired in 1967 to 16 or More Years of Schooling

Grade attending in 1968 and family income in 1967	WHITES				BLACKS			
	Total number (thousands)	Percent changing goal between 1967 and 1968			Total number (thousands)	Percent changing goal between 1967 and 1968		
		Upward	Downward	Total		Upward	Downward	Total
<u>10th or 11th</u>								
Less than \$6,000	91	a	a	a	46	4	38	42
\$6,000-9,999	125	8	14	22	19	a	a	a
\$10,000-14,999	130	6	10	16	12	a	a	a
\$15,000 or more	154	8	5	13	2	a	a	a
Total or average	499	7	14	21	79	4	35	39
<u>12th</u>								
Less than \$6,000	85	a	a	a	67	6	19	25
\$6,000-9,999	312	10	19	29	18	a	a	a
\$10,000-14,999	260	6	20	26	11	a	a	a
\$15,000 or more	191	2	6	8	5	a	a	a
Total or average	848	7	17	24	102	6	15	21
<u>College 1</u>								
Less than \$10,000	187	21	9	30	28	11	10	21
\$10,000-14,999	185	18	11	29	6	a	a	a
\$15,000 or more	164	18	16	34	1	a	a	a
Total or average	537	19	12	31	35	9	8	17
<u>Total or average</u>								
Less than \$3,000	23	a	a	a	44	4	20	24
\$3,000-5,999	192	15	20	35	84	6	28	34
\$6,000-9,999	584	12	16	28	51	7	23	30
\$10,000-14,999	575	10	15	25	28	10	7	17
\$15,000 or more	510	9	9	18	8	a	a	a
Total or average	1,884	11	14	25	216	6	21	27

a Percent not shown where base represents fewer than 25 sample cases.

one aspect of the two-year longitudinal change in occupational goals of those who were students in 1966, namely the impact on goal revision of discontinuation of schooling.¹⁷

As was expected, the occupational aspirations of young men who left school during the two-year period underwent more change than did the goals of youth who remained in school (Table 1.7). Nearly half of the youth who were last enrolled in 1966 revised their goals between 1966 and 1968, whereas only about two-fifths of those who remained in school through 1968 changed their aspirations. The data also suggest that the probability of revising aspirations is positively related to the length of time a young man has been out of school.

In general, the patterns of aspirational change indicate that educational attainment, maturation, and exposure to the labor market contribute to reducing the dissonance which existed between occupational goals and the probability of those goals being realized. However, the greatest stability is exhibited by those youth whose aspirations were most likely to be frustrated, i.e., young men desiring to hold white-collar jobs at age 30. Yet, the data do show that exposure to the labor market, i.e., discontinuation of formal schooling, substantially increases the probability of a change in goals. Among both blacks and whites with initial white-collar aspirations, those who were not enrolled at the second and third survey dates were almost twice as likely as those continuously enrolled through 1968 to have revised their occupational goals.

As was expected, the greatest incidence of revision is evident among youth whose initial goals were unformed, namely those who responded "I don't know" to the question in 1966. Four-fifths of the whites and seven-tenths of the blacks in that category had developed a specific goal by 1968. Interestingly, the likelihood of this type of change does not seem to bear any systematic relationship to continuation of formal schooling. Not surprisingly, among young men who initially aspired to

17 The universe under study here is those young men who were interviewed at both the first and third surveys (not necessarily at the second), and who were enrolled in school in 1966, irrespective of the level of the school. This universe definition has two important implications which should be borne in mind. First, the data presented may not be equally representative of the stability of aspirations for each subgroup because of the differential attrition from our sample. As noted earlier, young men who remained in school throughout the two-year period were considerably more likely than those who left school to be reinterviewed in 1968. Second, the figures undoubtedly overstate the stability of occupational goals among high school students, since college students are included in the universe.

Table 1.7 Proportion with Same Occupational Aspiration in 1966 and 1968,^a by Comparative School Enrollment Status 1967 and 1968, Selected Types of Occupational Aspirations as of 1966, and Color: Youth Enrolled in School in 1966

Comparative school enrollment status 1967 and 1968	1966 Aspiration									
	White-collar		Blue-collar		Other type of occupation		Don't know		Total or average	
	Total number (thousands)	Percent with same aspiration	Total number (thousands)	Percent with same aspiration	Total number (thousands)	Percent with same aspiration	Total number (thousands)	Percent with same aspiration	Total number (thousands)	Percent with same aspiration
WHITES										
Enrolled in 1967 and 1968	3,283	86	406	59	237	41	868	20	4,949	64
Enrolled in 1967; not enrolled in 1968	744	78	201	70	66	b	176	19	1,275	56
Not enrolled in 1967 and 1968	487	75	217	68	96	b	56	b	893	53
Total or average ^c	4,625	85	844	63	401	42	1,117	20	7,271	61
BLACKS										
Enrolled in 1967 and 1968	308	84	107	53	15	b	80	27	519	60
Enrolled in 1967; not enrolled in 1968	79	78	41	68	6	b	27	42	156	55
Not enrolled in 1967 and 1968	56	70	42	61	5	b	22	b	128	50
Total or average ^c	447	81	192	58	27	11	132	30	812	58

a The "same occupational aspiration" is defined in terms of the 10 occupational groups plus armed forces and don't know

b Percentages not shown where base represents fewer than 25 sample cases.

c Total includes a small number of respondents who were students in 1966, not enrolled in 1967, but enrolled in 1968.

blue-collar occupations, greater stability of goals is evident for school leavers than for those who continued their educations. For this group of aspirants, entering the labor market on a full-time basis is probably more consistent with their goals than staying in school would be.

In order to examine aspirational change in more detail it is necessary to define "occupation" more narrowly. Table 1.8 presents data for three categories of "initial occupational aspiration" which contain sufficient sample cases for analysis. Of the 4.2 million students who aspired to professional-technical jobs as of 1966 about 30 percent changed their goals during the ensuing two years. About two-fifths of the changes were toward other white-collar occupations while one-fifth of the changers became undecided about a preferred occupation at age 30. Within the group desiring professional-technical jobs the impact of discontinuation of schooling on aspirational change is even more clear. Among both blacks and whites the percentage with stable aspirations declines monotonically with the length of time out of school. Moreover, the likelihood of a major change in aspirations (e.g., from professional-technical to some nonwhite-collar occupation) also appears to be positively related to the amount of labor market exposure after discontinuing formal schooling. Thus, although there is not much net change between 1966 and 1968 in the proportion of the sample aspiring to professional and technical occupations, the net figures cover up considerable revision away from these occupational goals, particularly among school-leavers.

Among young men who desired high-level blue-collar occupations as of 1966 about one-fourth had revised their aspirations upward (i.e., to white-collar jobs) by 1968. Another seventh of them had lowered their aspirations by the same date. Among these blue-collar aspirants there is a slightly greater tendency for those who left school than for those who stayed in to revise their goals downward. Youth whose aspirations crystallized during the two-year period from an initially uncertain status exhibit even clearer patterns. First, those who remained in school are much more likely than those who left to aspire to professional-technical jobs in specific, and white-collar jobs in general. Second, it is only within this group that a major intercolor difference is apparent. Irrespective of whether they are still students, black youngsters were less prone to develop aspirations for white-collar jobs and particularly for professional-technical jobs. Furthermore, blacks were half again as likely as whites to continue to be undecided about a future occupation, and a similar difference is apparent among those whose initial goals were jobs as craftsmen.

V CHANGES IN LABOR FORCE AND EMPLOYMENT STATUS, 1966-1968¹⁸

The process of "aging" two years and the accompanying changes in school enrollment status among members of the sample may be expected to produce substantial changes in the labor force and employment status of

¹⁸ The universe discussed in this section is restricted to young men with work experience as of the 1967 survey.

Table 1.8 Selected Types of Occupational Aspirations as of 1966, by Selected Types of Occupational Aspirations as of 1968, Comparative School Enrollment Status 1967 and 1968, and Color: Youth Enrolled in School in 1966

(Percentage distributions)

Selected type of 1966 occupational aspiration and selected type of 1968 occupational aspiration	WHITES				BLACKS			
	Enrolled 1967 and 1968	Enrolled 1967, not enrolled 1968	Not enrolled 1967 and 1968	Total or average	Enrolled 1967 and 1968	Enrolled 1967, not enrolled 1968	Not enrolled 1967 and 1968	Total or average
Professional, technical								
Professional, technical	77	63	54	73	72	65	53	68
Other white-collar	11	18	21	13	13	17	16	13
Blue-collar and other occupations	6	15	20	9	10	8	26	12
Don't know	6	5	5	6	5	11	4	6
Total percent	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100
Total number (thousands)	2,816	562	342	3,807	260	66	43	370
Craftsman-foreman								
White-collar	27	18	27	26	33	11		24
Craftsman, foreman	54	58	52	54	52	66		52
Other blue-collar and other occupations	12	15	17	14	8	10	a	14
Don't know	6	8	2	5	7	13		10
Total percent	100	100	100	100	100	100		100
Total number (thousands)	333	159	180	687	69	28	22	120
Don't know								
Professional, technical	51	35	34	48	34	14		24
Other white-collar	15	23	3	17	3	0		4
Blue-collar and other occupations	13	24	a	15	36	43	a	41
Don't know	20	19		20	27	42		30
Total percent	100	100		100	100	100		100
Total number (thousands)	868	176	56	1,117	80	27	22	132

a Percentage distribution not shown where base represents fewer than 25 sample cases.

the youth between the 1966 and 1968 surveys. In this section we examine the extent of change in labor force participation rates and unemployment rates over the two-year period, and attempt to ascertain the extent to which these are attributable to changes in the characteristics of the sample rather than to changes in the external environment during the two-year period.

Changes in Labor Force Participation Rates

As was anticipated, there were substantial increases in the rates of labor force participation by the young men between the dates of the first and third surveys. The longitudinal data reveal that the participation rates for whites and blacks were respectively 9.3 and 12.0 percentage points higher in 1968 than in 1966 (Table 1.9). Although each age-color-school enrollment status group exhibits an increase of at least 4 percentage points, there is considerable variation in the absolute and relative magnitudes of change. In an earlier report on one-year longitudinal changes by this cohort of youth, we concluded that change in school enrollment status was the most important single factor affecting the probability of labor force participation.¹⁹ The two-year longitudinal data offer corroboration of this conclusion, though somewhat indirectly. Irrespective of color, by far the largest change in participation rate occurs among 16- and 17-year-old youth who were not enrolled in 1968, and this group undoubtedly has the largest proportion of young men who left school between the survey dates. Moreover, the increase in this group's participation rate is about twice as large as the increase exhibited by the corresponding age group which was still in school as of 1968.

The data in Table 1.9 are also evidence that there is a positive "age effect" on participation which is independent of school leaving; though the former "effect" is obviously some mixture of becoming eligible for a wider range of jobs under child-labor laws and acquiring additional knowledge, experience, and maturity. That is, those who were students in 1968 (about 95 percent of them were enrolled at all three survey dates) exhibit a substantially increased participation rate. However, there is also an indication that the "aging effect" diminishes with age. For example, among white students the absolute and relative increase in participation declines monotonically across the three (16 and 17, 18 to 20, 21 to 26) age groups.²⁰ This diminishing effect of "aging" suggests that the impact of eligibility for (1) additional job opportunities under child-labor laws and for (2) an automobile driver's license outweighs the effects on participation of increased knowledge and greater flexibility of hours which accompany the move from high school to college.

19 Zeller, et al., Career Thresholds, Vol. II, p. 26.

20 This diminishing effect of "aging" is not a result of the upper bound of 100 percent on a participation rate because none of the initial rates are within 35 percentage points of that upper bound.

Table 1.9
Comparison of Labor Force Participation Rates 1966 and 1968 Survey Weeks, by School Enrollment
Status and Age in 1968, and Color ^a

School enrollment status and age in 1968	WHITES			BLACKS			
	Total number (thousands)	Labor force participation rate		Total number (thousands)	Labor force participation rate		Change in rate (1968-1966)
		1966	1968		1966	1968	
<u>Enrolled</u>							
16 and 17	2,102	47.7	61.7	256	48.0	62.7	+14.7
18 to 20	1,655	49.2	56.4	168	50.0	61.1	+11.1
21 to 26	1,103	63.5	69.0	41	64.2	77.1	+12.9
Total or average	4,858	51.7	61.6	465	50.1	63.4	+13.3
<u>Not enrolled</u>							
16 and 17	412	61.6	88.9	92	59.0	88.6	+29.6
18 to 20	1,429	77.7	95.5	260	78.2	94.2	+16.2
21 to 26	4,275	93.5	97.7	598	91.5	98.0	+ 6.5
Total or average	6,116	87.7	96.6	950	84.7	96.1	+11.4
<u>Total or average</u>							
16 and 17	2,513	50.0	66.2	347	50.9	69.5	+18.6
18 to 20	3,084	62.4	74.5	428	67.1	81.2	+14.1
21 to 26	5,377	87.4	91.9	639	89.7	96.7	+ 7.0
Total or average	10,974	71.8	81.1	1,415	73.3	85.3	+12.0

a Includes only those with work experience as of the 1967 survey.

Changes in Unemployment Rates

In general, comparison of 1966 and 1968 unemployment rates among men 16 to 26 years of age in 1968 indicates a downward trend (Table 1.10). However, a decline in unemployment is not observed for each subgroup, nor is the pattern of differences as consistent as the patterns of change in labor force participation. The evidence relating to a hypothesized "age effect" on the probability of being unemployed is mixed, at best. Among white students, each of the two younger age groups experienced a decline of about 4 percentage points, whereas the rate among those 21 to 26 years old actually increased. For black students the situation is exactly the opposite; higher rates characterize those under 21 while a slight decline is found among men 21 and older. The net result of these various changes is a widening of the initial intercolor differences in unemployment among young men in school. That is, for students under 21 the rate among blacks is more than twice that among whites (23.6 percent versus 9.2 percent) and for those 21 and older the intercolor difference is in the opposite direction.

The data relevant to the effect of leaving school on the probability of being unemployed are somewhat clearer. There is support for the conclusion which we derived from the one-year longitudinal data that the net result of discontinuation of formal schooling is a decrease in unemployment. For example, in the group of nonstudents which probably contains the largest proportion of recent school leavers (i.e., 16- and 17-year olds) survey week unemployment rates declined between 1966 and 1968 from 18.3 percent to 9.3 percent among whites and from 14.7 to 9.4 percent among blacks. Interestingly, in contrast to the case of students, the net result of the several changes is to diminish intercolor differences in unemployment rates. In fact, among youth under 21 years of age the 1968 unemployment rates of blacks and whites are virtually identical.

There are two tentative conclusions to be drawn from the rather unsystematic array of changes in unemployment rates over the two-year period. First, the situations of nonstudents and school-leavers improved much more than that of young men who remained in school. Second, the situation of young black students deteriorated both in absolute terms and relative to their white counterparts.

Changes in Labor Market Conditions, 1966-1968

However, before attributing the longitudinal changes which have been noted to "aging" of the sample and/or to changes in school enrollment rates, it is necessary to ascertain the extent to which they may merely reflect differences in general economic conditions between 1966 and 1968. A reasonable approximation to introducing a "control" for external economic conditions is comparison of the longitudinal survey (LGS) results with cross-sectional data on a roughly comparable age group collected as part of the Current Population Survey (CPS). The comparison is facilitated by the fact that the LGS interviews were conducted in October and November of each year whereas the CPS results apply to October of

Table 1.10 Comparison of Unemployment Rates ^a 1966 and 1968 Survey Weeks, by School Enrollment Status and Age in 1968 and Color

School enrollment status and age in 1968	WHITES				Change in rate (1968-1966)	BLACKS				Change in rate (1968-1966)
	Total number in labor force (thousands)		Unemployment rate			Total number in labor force (thousands)		Unemployment rate		
	1966	1968	1966	1968		1966	1968	1966	1968	
<u>Enrolled</u>										
16 and 17	1,003	1,297	14.7	11.0	-3.7	123	161	15.6	27.8	+12.2
18 to 20	814	933	11.0	6.7	-4.3	84	103	12.4	22.9	+10.5
21 to 26	700	761	6.1	8.4	+2.3	26	32	4.7	4.3	- 0.4
Total or average	2,517	2,991	11.2	8.9	-2.3	233	296	13.2	23.5	+10.3
<u>Not enrolled</u>										
16 and 17	254	366	18.3	9.3	-9.0	54	82	14.7	9.4	- 5.3
18 to 20	1,110	1,365	11.3	4.7	-6.6	203	245	19.7	4.7	-15.0
21 to 26	3,997	4,177	2.0	0.8	-1.2	547	586	3.8	2.6	- 1.2
Total or average	5,364	5,908	4.8	2.2	-2.6	804	913	8.6	3.7	- 4.9
<u>Total or average</u>										
16 and 17	1,257	1,664	15.6	10.6	-5.0	177	241	15.5	21.6	+ 6.1
18 to 20	1,924	2,298	11.2	5.5	-5.7	287	348	17.6	10.1	- 7.5
21 to 26	4,699	4,941	2.7	2.0	-0.7	573	618	5.0	2.7	- 2.3
Total or average	7,880	8,903	6.8	4.4	-2.4	1,037	1,207	9.7	8.6	- 1.1

^a Unemployment rates are computed as a percentage of those in the labor force in the relevant year.

each year. The CPS data reveal that for whites the participation and unemployment rates in 1968 were virtually identical to the 1966 rates (Table 1.11). Among blacks labor force participation was lower and unemployment was higher in 1968 relative to 1966. Furthermore, the data show substantial differences in the pattern of changes between students and nonstudents. Irrespective of color, while participation rates of students increased, those of nonstudents declined.

In any event, the CPS data indicate that the impact of differences in labor market conditions on participation can account for only a very small fraction of the total longitudinal change, and then only among students. That is, CPS rates for black students rose by 2.3 percentage points while the observed longitudinal increase was 13.3 percentage points. The comparable figures for whites are 3.4 and 9.9 percentage points, respectively. The comparison of LGS and CPS results with respect to nonstudents provides even stronger evidence that observed longitudinal changes in participation rates cannot be attributed to different labor market conditions in the two years. For both color groups, the LGS data show substantial increases in the rates whereas the cross-sectional data exhibit declines.

Unfortunately, the comparison of longitudinal and cross-sectional results regarding unemployment rates does not lead to as uniformly strong a conclusion. On the one hand, among all white youth and among black nonstudents the CPS data suggest that the LGS estimates of the decline in unemployment due to "aging" are understatements.²¹ For example, while Table 1.10 indicates a decrease of 2.3 percentage points in the unemployment rate of white students, the CPS results indicate that the labor market faced by these youth was slightly worse in 1968 than in 1966. On the other hand, the cross-sectional data imply that a considerable portion of the observed longitudinal increase of 10.3 percentage points in the unemployment rate of black students may be attributable to a less buoyant labor market. Bearing in mind this latter exception, we are, nevertheless, inclined to believe that the changes in labor force and employment status measured by the longitudinal survey between the 1966 and 1968 surveys mainly reflect changes in the characteristics of the respondents that affect their employment prospects.

VI SUMMARY

While about one-sixth of the young men in the 1966 sample were not reinterviewed in 1968, the principal reason was entry into the armed services at some time during the intervening two years. Since our main interest is in longitudinal change within the civilian population and

21 However, it should be kept in mind that the LGS data for 1968 do not include recently-returned veterans whereas the CPS data do. Since these young men have somewhat higher-than-average unemployment rates, comparison of CPS data for 1966 and 1968 may somewhat overstate the deterioration of labor market conditions for nonveterans in this age group.

Table 1.11 Labor Force Participation Rate and Unemployment Rate According to Current Population Survey of Men 16 to 24 Years of Age in the Civilian Noninstitutional Population, by School Enrollment Status and Color, October 1966 and October 1968 ^a

School enrollment status, labor force participation rate and unemployment rate	WHITES			NEGROES AND OTHER RACES		
	October 1966	October 1968	Change in rate (1968- 1966)	October 1966	October 1968	Change in rate (1968- 1966)
<u>Enrolled</u>						
Population (thousands)	5,960	6,341		678	779	
Labor force participation rate	41.4	44.8	+3.4	30.2	32.5	+2.3
Unemployment rate	7.0	7.9	+0.9	14.1	20.2	+6.1
<u>Not enrolled</u>						
Population (thousands)	4,868	4,926		866	873	
Labor force participation rate	94.7	92.0	-2.7	91.0	89.6	-1.4
Unemployment rate	5.0	4.8	-0.2	8.2	12.7	+4.5
<u>Total or average</u>						
Population (thousands)	10,828	11,267		1,544	1,652	
Labor force participation rate	65.3	65.4	+0.1	64.3	62.6	-1.7
Unemployment rate	6.1	6.1	0.0	11.4	14.5	+3.1

- a Vera C. Perrella, Employment of School Age Youth, October 1966, Special Labor Force Report No. 87 (Washington, D.C.: U.S. Department of Labor, Bureau of Labor Statistics, August 1967), Table D, p. A-8; Elizabeth Waldman, Employment Status of School Age Youth, October 1968, Special Labor Force Report No. 111 (Washington, D.C.: U.S. Department of Labor, Bureau of Labor Statistics, August 1969), Table C, p. A-8.

labor force, little, if any, bias is introduced into our results by attrition from the sample. As expected, aging of the cohort by two years results in a significant decline in the school enrollment rate for both blacks and whites and in a widening of the intercolor difference in the rate. However, the transition from school to work is not always a simple matter of leaving school and embarking upon a lifetime career. More than one-tenth of the young men not enrolled at the time of the 1966 survey returned to school for some time during the ensuing two years, and the probability of returning is three times as high for whites as for blacks.

Among young men enrolled in school both years, irrespective of color, about three in ten revised their educational goals. By and large, the findings are consistent with our previous report on changes over a single year. Revision of occupational aspirations is found to be strongly associated with discontinuation of formal schooling and to be particularly likely among those youth whose goals in 1966 were undefined. The most stable aspirations are found among youth who initially desired to be in a professional-technical job at age 30.

As a prelude to more intensive analyses of longitudinal labor market experiences which are contained in the chapters that follow, we briefly examined the net changes in labor force participation and unemployment rates between the 1966 and 1968 survey weeks for the entire sample. Comparison of the longitudinal changes in participation to differences between the two survey dates in cross-sectional data indicates clearly that only a small fraction of the substantial increase discernible in the longitudinal data is attributable to differences in labor market conditions. The same conclusion is drawn regarding the longitudinal decline in unemployment rates, with one notable exception. In the case of young black students, the less buoyant labor market of 1968 seems to have been a major source of the observed longitudinal rise in the unemployment rate. By and large, the data are consistent with the hypothesized positive effects on participation of leaving school and "aging." While unemployment rate changes are less systematic, they do indicate that the situations of nonstudents and school leavers improved much more than that of young men who remained in school.

Table 1A-1 Attrition Rate Between 1966 and 1968 Surveys,
by Reason and Selected Characteristics of
Respondents in 1966

Characteristic, 1966	Total number 1966 (thousands)	Noninterview rate			Armed forces	Total attrition rate
		Refusal	Unable to locate	Total ^a		
All respondents						
Whites	14,046	2.8	1.9	5.7	11.0	16.7
Blacks	1,919	2.2	5.9	10.1	9.6	19.7
Enrolled in school						
Whites	8,644	2.4	1.3	4.6	11.3	15.9
Blacks	979	1.9	3.5	6.7	10.4	17.1
Not enrolled in school						
Whites	5,402	3.6	2.8	7.4	10.6	18.0
Blacks	940	2.5	8.4	13.8	8.7	22.5

^a Includes some respondents who were not interviewed for other reasons such as temporary absence.

Table 1A-2 Attrition Rate between 1966 and 1968 Surveys, by Reason, Selected Labor Market Characteristics, and Color of Respondents Enrolled in School in 1966

Characteristic 1966	Total number 1966 (thousands)	Noninterview rate			Armed forces	Total attrition rate
		Refusal	Unable to locate	Total ^a		
Total enrolled in 1966						
Whites	8,644	2.4	1.3	4.6	11.3	15.9
Blacks	979	1.9	3.5	6.7	10.4	17.1
Employed in survey week						
Whites	3,974	2.1	0.9	3.8	13.9	17.7
Blacks	393	1.9	4.3	6.9	11.8	18.7
Unemployed in survey week						
Whites	538	3.4	3.9	7.6	13.9	21.5
Blacks	85	0.0	3.2	7.5	15.3	22.8
Out of labor force in survey week						
Whites	4,132	2.5	1.4	5.0	8.4	13.4
Blacks	501	2.3	2.9	6.4	8.4	14.8
Worked 1-14 hours in survey week						
Whites	1,516	0.8	0.9	1.5	12.4	13.9
Blacks	152	1.2	b	3.0	10.1	13.1
Worked 15-34 hours in survey week						
Whites	1,617	0.0	1.1	1.1	21.4	22.5
Blacks	176	1.2	8.1	9.9	11.3	21.2
Worked 35 or more hours in survey week						
Whites	647	5.2	0.0	7.2	9.2	16.4
Blacks	49	6.9	0.0	7.0	14.8	21.8
Current or (last) occupation						
Professional, managerial						
Whites	770	2.6	b	4.6	9.2	13.8
Blacks	25	0.0	0.0	0.0	4.7	4.7
Clerical						
Whites	712	3.6	b	4.0	19.2	23.2
Blacks	46	4.4	9.7	16.2	15.4	31.6
Sales						
Whites	716	1.7	0.6	2.9	6.4	9.3
Blacks	50	3.7	0.0	7.9	13.8	21.7
Craftsmen or operatives						
Whites	1,494	1.3	2.6	5.3	18.7	24.0
Blacks	137	2.2	5.4	8.4	10.9	19.3
Nonfarm laborers						
Whites	1,584	3.9	1.0	6.4	9.7	16.1
Blacks	181	1.7	5.9	9.2	15.5	24.7
Service						
Whites	1,158	1.2	2.2	4.2	15.5	19.7
Blacks	194	b	2.1	4.5	12.9	17.4
Farm						
Whites	819	2.1	b	3.0	6.7	9.7
Blacks	117	0.0	2.8	2.9	5.9	8.8
Never worked						
Whites	1,317	2.8	1.0	4.1	4.1	8.2
Blacks	215	3.1	1.8	5.7	4.4	10.1

a Totals include some respondents not interviewed for other reasons such as temporary absence.

b Percentage is 0.1 to 0.5.

Table 1A-3 Attrition Rate between 1966 and 1968 Surveys, by Reason, Selected Labor Market Characteristics, and Color of Respondents Not Enrolled in School in 1966

Characteristic 1966	Total number 1966 (thousands)	Noninterview rate			Armed forces	Total attrition rate
		Refusal	Unable to locate	Total ^a		
Total not enrolled in 1966						
Whites	5,402	3.6	2.8	7.4	10.6	18.0
Blacks	940	2.5	8.4	13.8	8.7	22.5
Employed in survey week						
Whites	5,024	3.4	2.6	6.5	10.0	16.5
Blacks	834	2.6	8.8	13.5	8.4	21.9
Unemployed in survey week						
Whites	155	8.0	6.7	17.3	7.2	24.5
Blacks	46	3.0	4.1	9.2	11.8	21.0
Out of labor force in survey week						
Whites	222	5.7	5.8	20.5	26.8	47.3
Blacks	59	1.7	6.7	20.9	10.9	31.8
Worked 1-34 hours in survey week						
Whites	601	1.5	b	3.3	18.9	22.2
Blacks	158	1.6	9.4	13.7	7.0	20.7
Worked 35-40 hours in survey week						
Whites	1,341	2.9	1.3	4.9	12.0	16.9
Blacks	241	4.9	5.9	14.1	9.3	23.4
Worked 41 or more hours in survey week						
Whites	2,967	4.0	3.7	8.1	7.5	15.6
Blacks	412	0.6	10.0	12.2	7.5	19.7
Current (last) occupation						
Professional, managerial						
Whites	670	1.8	2.8	4.7	5.7	10.4
Blacks	34	0.0	41.7	41.7	5.4	47.1
Clerical						
Whites	469	4.8	6.9	13.5	11.4	24.9
Blacks	66	2.4	2.3	6.7	12.2	18.9
Sales						
Whites	221	2.1	0.0	2.1	9.7	11.8
Blacks	1	c	c	c	c	100.0
Craftsmen						
Whites	1,114	2.5	0.9	3.5	9.1	12.6
Blacks	106	b	6.2	7.1	4.3	11.4
Operatives						
Whites	1,712	4.6	2.6	8.5	9.5	18.0
Blacks	301	0.8	7.0	9.7	8.8	18.5
Nonfarm laborers						
Whites	562	3.8	6.2	10.9	15.4	26.3
Blacks	191	8.0	9.4	22.8	14.7	37.5
Service						
Whites	268	4.1	1.7	8.6	21.7	30.3
Blacks	125	1.6	5.3	7.7	7.8	15.5
Farm						
Whites	268	2.9	1.8	4.7	13.3	18.0
Blacks	82	0.0	12.7	17.8	1.4	19.2

a Total includes some respondents who were not interviewed for other reasons such as temporary absence.

b Percentage is 0.1 to 0.5.

c Rates not computed where base represents fewer than 25 sample cases.

Table 1A-4 Attrition Rate between 1967 and 1968 Surveys, by Reason
and by Selected Characteristics of Respondents in 1967

Characteristic 1967	Total number 1967 (thousands)	Noninterview rate			Armed forces	Total attrition rate
		Refusal	Unable to locate	Total ^a		
All Respondents						
Whites	12,893	1.5	1.5	3.7	6.9	10.6
Blacks	1,727	1.0	5.1	7.7	5.6	13.3
Enrolled in school in 1966 and 1967						
Whites	6,793	0.9	0.9	2.5	6.3	8.8
Blacks	744	0.6	3.3	4.5	5.5	10.0
Enrolled in school in 1966 and not enrolled in 1967						
Whites	1,298	2.8	2.5	6.0	17.8	23.8
Blacks	170	1.4	3.3	6.8	16.0	22.8
Less than 18 years of age in 1967						
Whites	3,881	1.5	1.2	3.5	3.6	7.1
Blacks	582	b	3.3	5.6	2.4	8.0
18 to 25 years of age in 1967						
Whites	9,012	1.5	1.6	3.8	8.3	12.1
Blacks	1,145	1.3	6.0	8.8	7.2	16.0
Educational goals in 1966 of those enrolled in school in 1966 and 1967						
High school graduation						
Whites	1,045	2.0	1.2	4.0	6.3	10.3
Blacks	208	0.0	3.1	3.6	5.1	8.7
College - 2 years						
Whites	517	0.7	0.6	1.3	5.1	6.4
Blacks	75	0.0	1.3	3.7	11.3	15.0
College - 4 years						
Whites	2,752	0.8	1.2	2.6	6.7	9.3
Blacks	304	1.2	3.5	5.4	5.4	10.8
College - 6 or more years						
Whites	2,347	0.6	0.7	2.0	5.5	7.5
Blacks	135	0.6	4.6	5.3	2.1	7.4

a Totals include some respondents who were not interviewed for other reasons such as temporary absence.

b Percentage is 0.1 to 0.5.

Table 1A-5 Attrition Rate between 1967 and 1968 Surveys, by Reason and Selected Characteristics of Respondents in 1967 Who Were Not Enrolled in School in 1966 and 1967

Characteristic 1967	Total number 1967 (thousands)	Noninterviewed rate			Armed forces	Total attrition rate
		Refusal	Unable to locate	Total ^a		
Total not enrolled 1966 and 1967						
Whites	4,730	2.0	2.0	4.8	4.6	9.4
Blacks	805	1.4	7.0	11.0	3.2	14.2
Employed 1966 and 1967 survey weeks						
Whites	4,338	1.8	1.7	3.9	4.3	8.2
Blacks	658	1.3	6.3	9.0	2.9	11.9
Employed by same employer in 1966 and 1967 survey weeks						
Whites	2,712	2.1	1.1	3.4	2.6	6.0
Blacks	356	1.3	6.6	9.2	2.9	12.1
Employed by different employers in 1966 and 1967 survey weeks						
Whites	1,584	1.3	2.7	5.0	7.0	12.0
Blacks	299	0.0	6.0	8.0	3.9	11.9
Married spouse present 1966 and 1967						
Whites	2,422	2.1	1.3	3.7	1.0	4.7
Blacks	273	2.6	3.6	8.7	b	8.9
Never married 1966 and 1967						
Whites	1,761	2.4	2.0	6.3	9.9	16.2
Blacks	423	0.9	11.0	15.2	5.5	20.7
Never married 1966 and married spouse present 1967						
Whites	458	1.0	3.0	4.3	4.6	8.9
Blacks	50	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0
Selective service classification 1967 ^d						
I-A						
Whites	405	2.2	b	3.6	39.5	43.1
Blacks	130	2.1	9.9	12.8	14.4	27.2
I-D						
Whites	421	2.6	1.0	4.6	7.4	12.0
Blacks	7	c	c	c	c	c

Footnotes at the end of table.

Table 1A-5 continued

Attrition Rate between 1967 and 1968 Surveys, by Reason,
Selected Characteristics of Respondents in 1967 Who Were
Not Enrolled in School in 1966 and 1967

Characteristic 1967	Total number 1967 (thousands)	Noninterviewed rate			Armed forces	Total attrition rate
		Refusal	Unable to locate	Total ^a		
Selective service classification 1967 ^d						
III-A						
Whites	1,465	1.5	1.1	2.6	b	2.9
Blacks	149	4.8	4.4	11.1	0.0	11.1
IVF or I-Y						
Whites	1,291	1.9	3.2	7.0	1.3	8.3
Blacks	326	0.0	9.5	10.0	1.4	11.4
IV-A						
Whites	648	2.6	3.7	7.0	0.0	7.0
Blacks	70	0.0	1.9	3.3	0.0	3.3
Changed country (or SMSA) of residence between 1966 and 1967 survey weeks						
Whites	552	4.7	2.5	9.0	5.1	14.1
Blacks	51	0.0	23.2	23.2	4.6	27.8

a Totals include some respondents not interviewed for other reasons such as temporary absence.

b Percentage 0.1 to 0.5.

c Rates not computed where base represents fewer than 25 sample cases.

d The enumerated Selective Service classifications are defined as follows:

I-A: Registrant available for military service.

I-D: Qualified member of reserve component or student taking military training.

I-Y: Registrant qualified for military service only in time of war or national emergency.

III-A: Extreme hardship deferment, or registrant with a child or children.

IV-A': Registrant with sufficient prior active service or who is a sole surviving son.

IV-F: Registrant not qualified for any military service.

STABILITY AND CHANGE IN LABOR FORCE AND EMPLOYMENT STATUS:
OUT-OF-SCHOOL YOUTHI INTRODUCTION

In this chapter attention is again directed to measures of longitudinal change in labor force and employment status. However, the focus is narrowed to young men who have not been enrolled in school for at least 14 months. As was indicated briefly in the preceding chapter, even out-of-school youth exhibit (1) considerable heterogeneity in labor force status and (2) some systematic patterns of change in this status. The next section of this chapter is devoted to an examination of the change in labor force status between 1966 and 1968 experienced by men in their early twenties who have been out of school for a minimum of 25 months, i.e., those who were not enrolled at the time of the initial survey nor subsequently. The third section focuses on the one-year longitudinal experiences of those who had left school between one and two years prior to the 1968 survey.¹ A brief summary concludes the chapter.

Before turning to an examination of the data, a brief word is in order regarding the measures of labor force participation and unemployment which are used. In addition to conventional labor force participation and unemployment rates in the survey week, we use average (mean) number of weeks in the labor force and average number of weeks unemployed during the 12-month period preceding each survey. Although mean number of weeks in the labor force for a given group of individuals is conceptually analogous to their labor force participation rate in a given week, the same relationship does not prevail between mean number of weeks unemployed and the unemployment rate. The latter two are dissimilar because the unemployment rate uses as its base only those persons in the labor force, but mean number of weeks of unemployment is calculated on the basis of all persons in the relevant population. From some points of view it is more appropriate to inquire what proportion of weeks in the labor force were spent in unemployment. Such a measure is included in some of the

* This chapter was written by Andrew I. Kohen.

1 It is likely, given the timing of the interviews (October/November) and the typical timing of graduation from school (June), that the majority of these young men had been out of school about 18 months at the time of the third survey.

tables. Finally, in the discussion of one-year longitudinal changes we also present data on a "disemployment rate" which is defined as the proportion of those employed in the initial survey week who were either unemployed or out of the labor force during the second survey week.²

II YOUNG MEN OUT OF SCHOOL AT ALL THREE SURVEY DATES

Prior to examining the patterns of two-year longitudinal change in labor force participation and unemployment among the group of men out of school at all three survey dates, it is worthwhile to take note of the differences in external economic conditions which prevailed at the beginning and end of the period. Comparison of the results of the Current Population Survey for the two dates in question reveals a general deterioration of the labor market faced by men in their late teens and early twenties. Among 18-to 24-year-old men not enrolled in school, in five of the six age-color groups, labor force participation rates were lower in October 1968 than in October 1966 (Table 2.1). Furthermore, for five of the six age-color groups unemployment rates were higher in 1968; 18-and 19-year old whites are the exception, and they experienced a decline in unemployment of three-tenths of a percentage point.³

Correlates of Change in Labor Force Participation

Age From one perspective, the young men under consideration exhibit substantial stability of labor force participation, as would be expected. Overall, more than 95 out of every 100 were in the labor force at the time of both the first and third surveys. In addition, they spent an average of nearly 50 weeks in the labor force during each of the years preceding the second and third interviews (Table 2.2). On the other hand, there is also evidence of considerable longitudinal change which varies according to several characteristics. In light of the cross-sectional data discussed above, the longitudinal data are

2 For use of this concept of change in a slightly different context see Karl Egge, Andrew I. Kohen, John R. Shea, and Frederick A. Zeller, "Effects of Changes in the Federal Minimum Wage on Employment of Young Men, 1966-1967" in Youth Unemployment and Minimum Wages, Bulletin No. 1657 (U.S. Department of Labor, Bureau of Labor Statistics, 1970).

3 The results of a study by Robert L. Stein ("New Definitions for Employment and Unemployment," U.S. Department of Labor, Employment and Earnings, February 1967, pp. 3-27) offer strong support for our inference of a general deterioration in labor market conditions for this group. That is, the methodological difference between the CPS in 1966 and 1968 should be expected to result in lower estimates of unemployment rates among young men. Thus, the observed increases probably are understatements of the "true" rises and the one case of a decline may be covering up an "actual" increase. It should perhaps also be noted that although the methodological difference does not affect the comparison of participation rates among white youth, the figures in Table 2.1 probably overstate the decline in the participation rate of young black men.

Table 2.1 Labor Force Participation Rate and Unemployment Rate of Men 18 to 24 Years of Age and Not Enrolled in School Who Are in the Civilian Noninstitutional Population According to Current Population Survey, by Age and Color, October 1966 and October 1968^a

(Numbers in thousands)

Age and labor force and employment status	WHITES			NEGROES AND OTHER RACES		
	October 1966	October 1968	(1968-1966)	October 1966	October 1968	(1968-1966)
18 and 19						
Population	1,147	1,046		199	196	
Labor force participation rate	89.2	88.0	-1.2	84.9	86.7	+1.8
Unemployment rate	7.9	7.6	-0.3	11.2	20.0	+8.8
20 and 21						
Population	1,082	1,143		238	236	
Labor force participation rate	93.8	90.6	-3.2	95.8	89.4	-6.4
Unemployment rate	4.3	6.0	+1.7	10.1	10.9	+0.8
22 to 24						
Population	2,347	2,486		370	371	
Labor force participation rate	100.0	96.1	-3.9	96.2	95.9	-0.3
Unemployment rate	2.3	2.7	+0.4	3.1	8.4	+5.3
18 to 24						
Population	4,576	4,675		807	803	
Labor force participation rate ^b	95.8	92.9	-2.9	93.3	91.7	-1.6
Unemployment rate ^b	4.1	4.5	+0.4	7.0	11.9	+4.9

a Vera C. Perrella, Employment of School Age Youth, October 1966, Special Labor Force Report No. 87 (Washington, D.C.: U.S. Department of Labor, Bureau of Labor Statistics, 1967), Table D, p. A-8; Elizabeth Waldman, Employment of School Age Youth, October 1968, Special Labor Force Report No. 111 (Washington, D.C.: U. S. Department of Labor, Bureau of Labor Statistics, 1969), Table C, p. A-8.

b Calculated from grouped data.

Table 2.2 Comparison of Selected Measures of Labor Force Participation, 1966 and 1968, for Out-of-School Youth^a, by Highest Year of School Completed and Color

Highest year of school completed	Total number (thousands)	Survey week participation rate		Change in rate (1968-1966)	Mean weeks in labor force during 12 months preceding survey in		Change in rate (1968-1966)
		1966	1968		1967 ^b	1968	
WHITES							
8 or fewer	441	96.6	93.3	-3.3	49.2	48.2	-1.0
9 to 11	723	98.9	96.6	-2.3	50.4	49.4	-1.0
12	1,722	98.4	98.4	0.0	49.9	50.6	+0.7
13 to 15	381	97.4	97.7	+0.3	48.8	49.7	+0.9
16 or more	253	97.0	98.4	+1.4	48.9	49.2	+0.3
Total or average	3,520	98.0	97.2	-0.8	49.7	49.9	+0.2
BLACKS							
8 or fewer	140	94.6	95.5	+0.9	47.7	50.2	+2.5
9 to 11	173	93.8	95.2	+1.4	46.5	49.2	+2.7
12	221	96.1	98.8	+2.7	49.2	49.2	0.0
13 to 15	31	100.0	100.0	0.0	51.5	51.7	+0.2
16 or more	7	c	c	c	c	c	c
Total or average	571	95.2	96.9	+1.7	48.2	49.6	+1.4

- a Unless otherwise noted, tables in Sections I and II refer to youth 21 to 26 years of age in 1968 who were not enrolled in school at the time of the 1966, 1967, and 1968 surveys.
- b The base for which these means are computed is actually those who had some work experience by the time of the 1967 survey. See p.37, n. 4 for a discussion of the implications of this difference.
- c Rates and means not shown where the base represents fewer than 25 sample cases.

consistent with the hypothesis of a positive effect of age on the intensity of labor market activity. Even the overall decrease of 0.8 percentage points in the participation rate of whites is not inconsistent with the hypothesis since the CPS data in Table 2.1 show a decline more than three times as large. This aging effect is particularly interesting in view of the fact that all members of the cohort under study are in their twenties and most have been out of school more than three full years.

Education and training As the data in Table 2.2 illustrate, the overall positive impact of "aging" on labor force participation conceals considerable diversity. There is strong evidence that the impact of "aging" varies directly with the level of educational attainment. Among whites who did not graduate from high school, survey-week rates were lower in 1968 than in 1966; whereas the opposite is true among those who had attended college. While the number of young black men with college educations does not permit the same comparison, those with high school diplomas experienced an increase in participation more than twice as great as that of their counterparts who left school prior to high school graduation. The changes in mean weeks in the labor force during the two consecutive 12-month periods between the 1966 and 1968 surveys generally support the same conclusion, though the pattern is not as regular.⁴ It would seem that in order for a young white man to have avoided the vagaries of changes in the external economic environment via maturation and increased labor market experience he must have been a high school graduate. Yet, the benefits of aging seem to have accrued to young blacks irrespective of the level of schooling completed.

Additional support for the conclusion that the aging effect operates differently with respect to skill levels can be derived from information on the occupational training received by members of the sample. Among white high school graduates, those who acquired some formal training during the two-year period between the surveys exhibit an increase in

⁴ Although the 1967 and 1968 mean weeks are computed for slightly different universes, this has no impact on the inferences which can be drawn from comparing the longitudinal changes of the several groups categorized by educational attainment. While the 1968 figures are based on the entire population (shown in the first column of Table 2.2), the 1967 means refer only to those who had some work experience by the time of the 1967 survey. Using the extreme assumption that those without work experience spent the entire 52-week period between the 1966 and 1967 interviews out of the labor force, adjusted means were calculated. Although the proportion of young men without work experience is not uniform across the educational attainment categories, the downward adjustment of the 1967 means does not alter the ordinal relationship between longitudinal change and years of schooling completed. The magnitude of the adjustment ranges from no change among whites with less than nine years of schooling and blacks with some college to a 9 percent decrease in mean weeks among black high school dropouts.

participation of 1.6 percentage points compared to the decline of 0.5 percentage points among their counterparts with no training during the 24 months (Table 2.3). Similar differences according to training are evident among blacks who are high school dropouts or graduates. The relationship between training and longitudinal change in participation rate is reversed among whites who are high school dropouts. While we are only able to speculate at this point, the reversal may result from some portion of the group with training being involved in a program at the time of the interview.

Change in marital status 1966 to 1968 There is some a priori reason to believe that changes in marital status may be systematically associated with changes in the extent of labor force participation. Cross-sectional data indicate that controlling for school enrollment and age, the probability of a married man being in the labor force is much larger than the corresponding probability for a single man.⁵ Marriage and the accompanying responsibilities may place financial and other pressures on a young man who otherwise might be inclined not to participate in the labor market. Moreover, the decision to marry may itself be influenced by the security of a job and of a steady source of income. On the basis of one-year longitudinal data we concluded that there was no evidence of a "...substantial effect of a change in marital status on the extent of labor market activity."⁶ However, the earlier report's analysis was constrained by a rather gross definition of marital status change.

Despite the improved definitions illustrated in Table 2.4, our conclusions are much the same. It is true that young men who married during the course of the two-year period exhibit greater increases in participation than their counterparts who were married at both survey dates, even controlling for education. Yet, there is no consistent difference in longitudinal change between those who got married and those who remained single. The data again show an interesting relationship that was evident in the one-year longitudinal data that those who were nonmarried at the time of both surveys had much lower rates of labor force participation in both years than either those who were married at both dates or those who married during the period.⁷ This may mean that the relation between marital status and labor force participation observed in the cross-sectional data results from the fact that marriage

5 William G. Bowen and T. Aldrich Finegan, The Economics of Labor Force Participation (Princeton, New Jersey: Princeton University Press, 1969), pp. 392-93, 412-13; Parnes, et al., Career Thresholds, Vol. I, pp. 54-56, 62-64.

6 Zeller, et al., Career Thresholds, Vol. II, p. 23.

7 Ibid., p. 23. In the present survey, young men who have had some college seem to be an exception to this generalization.

Table 2.3 Comparison of Labor Force Participation Rates 1966 and 1968 Survey Weeks for Out-of-School Youth, by Highest Year of School Completed, Extent of Occupational Training Received during the 24 Months between the 1966 and 1968 Surveys, and Color: Youth Who Had Completed 9 through 12 Years of School

Highest year of school completed and extent of occupational training between 1966 and 1968 surveys	Total number (thousands)	Survey week participation rate		Change in rate (1968-1966)
		1966	1968	
	WHITES			
9 to 11 years				
No training	524	99.2	98.0	-0.8
1 or more programs	185	100.0	94.3	-5.7
Total or average	723	98.9	96.6	-2.3
12 years				
No training	1,078	98.4	97.9	-0.5
1 or more programs	620	98.2	99.8	+1.6
Total or average	1,722	98.4	98.4	0.0
	BLACKS			
9 to 11 years				
No training	122	97.9	95.8	-2.1
1 or more programs	34	76.3	91.1	+14.8
Total or average	173	93.8	95.2	+1.4
12 years				
No training	149	99.2	95.2	+0.8
1 or more programs	69	88.8	100.0	+11.2
Total or average	221	96.1	98.8	+2.7

is a selective process which "recruits" youth with characteristics that are associated with high labor force participation (e.g., good health, initiative, etc.). However, it is also interesting to note that young men who "dissolved" marriages during the two-year period (i.e., those who became divorced or separated) had labor force participation rates of 100 percent both before and after the alteration in marital status.

Color As has been noted at several points above there are many intercolor differences in the longitudinal experiences of young men. The net result of the somewhat unsystematic array of differences is a narrowing of the difference in labor force participation which prevailed between blacks and whites at the initial date. That is, the overall difference in favor of whites was 2.8 percentage points in 1966 but only 0.3 points in 1968 (Table 2.2). The analogous disparities in average weeks in the labor force are 1.5 and 0.3, respectively. The most dramatic change over time in the intercolor difference in participation appears among the least educated young men. The initial differential in favor of white youth is reversed among those youth who have completed fewer than nine years of formal schooling and is substantially reduced among those who entered but did not complete high school. Finally, there is some evidence that the narrowing disparity between less-well-educated whites and blacks is attributable largely to the differential experiences of youth who remained unmarried throughout the two-year period (Table 2.4).⁸

Correlates of Change in Unemployment

Age and education Using the conventional measure of survey-week unemployment rate, it seems apparent that there is a strong negative effect of age on the probability of a young man's being unemployed. In the face of a labor market for male youth which was considerably looser in the autumn of 1968 than in the autumn of 1966, the unemployment rates for white and black youth declined between the two dates by 1.0 and 0.4 percentage points, respectively (Table 2.5). Among whites the decrease is evident in each educational attainment subgroup except college graduates, among whom there was no unemployment at either survey date. For blacks, 1968 unemployment rates were the same as or lower than those of 1966, in all education groups with the exception of high school dropouts. However, the situation is not so clear if one considers annual unemployment experience in terms of (1) change in mean weeks unemployed per year, and/or (2) change in weeks unemployed as a percent of weeks in the labor force.⁹

⁸ Tabulations not presented here indicate further that the narrowing intercolor difference in participation among youth with less than a high school education is restricted to the group who resided in the same county (SMSA) at both survey dates. In fact, for this group the 1966 participation rate of whites was higher than that of blacks by 4.5 percentage points, but in 1968 the difference was 0.3 of a point in the opposite direction.

⁹ The universe for computation of the 1967 mean weeks is not strictly comparable to that upon which the 1968 mean is based. However, rough adjustments described in footnote 4 above suggest that no qualitatively different conclusions would follow from the adjusted date.

Table 2.4 Comparison of Labor Force Participation Rates 1966 and 1968 Survey Weeks for Out-of-School Youth, by Highest Year of School Completed, Comparison of Marital Status 1966 and 1968, and Color

Highest year of school completed and comparative marital status 1966 and 1968 ^a	WHITES			BLACKS		
	Total number (thousands)	Survey week participation rate		Total number (thousands)	Survey week participation rate	
		1966	1968		1966	1968
						Change in rate (1968-1966)
Less than 12						
Married both years	708	99.8	97.7	106	97.9	96.4
Never married both years	226	90.3	83.3	116	87.2	94.3
Never married 1966, married 1968	126	100.0	100.0	37	100.0	100.0
12						
Married both years	971	99.9	99.0	98	100.0	100.0
Never married both years	356	94.6	95.6	63	86.3	95.6
Never married 1966, married 1968	279	97.1	98.8	22	b	b
13 or more						
Married both years	332	100.0	100.0	11	b	b
Never married both years	172	92.0	97.1	10	b	b
Never married 1966, married 1968	111	96.3	96.3	9	b	b
Total or average						
Married both years	2,012	99.9	98.5	216	99.0	98.3
Never married both years	753	92.7	92.3	259	87.7	93.8
Never married 1966, married 1968	515	97.7	98.6	67	100.0	100.0
Married 1966, divorced or separated 1968	127	100.0	100.0	60	100.0	100.0

a The term "married" refers to those who were "married, wife present."

b Rates not shown when base represents fewer than 25 sample cases.

Table 2.5 Comparison of Selected Measures of Unemployment Experience 1966 and 1968 for Out-of-School Youth, by Highest Year of School Completed and Color

Highest year of school completed	Total number in labor force (thousands)		Survey week unemployment rate		Change in rate (1968-1966)	Total number (thousands)	Mean weeks unemployed during 12 months preceding survey in		Change in rate (1968-1966)	Mean weeks unemployed as percent of weeks in labor force		Change in rate (1968-1966)
	1966	1968	1966	1968			1967 ^a	1968				
WHITES												
8 or fewer	426	412	3.9	2.5	-1.4	441	2.1	1.2	-0.9	4.3	2.5	-1.8
9 to 11	715	698	2.6	0.7	-1.9	723	1.9	2.0	+0.1	3.8	3.6	-0.2
12	1,694	1,694	0.9	0.5	-0.4	1,722	0.8	0.7	-0.1	1.6	1.6	0.0
13 to 15	371	372	2.4	0.0	-2.4	381	0.8	0.6	-0.2	1.6	1.6	0.0
16 or more	245	249	0.0	0.0	0.0	253	0.1	0.1	0.0	0.2	0.2	0.0
Total or average	3,451	3,425	1.7	0.7	-1.0	3,520	1.2	1.0	-0.2	2.4	2.4	0.0
BLACKS												
8 or fewer	132	134	1.8	1.8	0.0	140	2.7	2.4	-0.3	5.7	4.8	-0.8
9 to 11	162	165	7.6	8.0	+0.4	173	2.7	3.6	+0.9	5.8	7.3	+1.4
12	212	218	1.9	0.7	-1.2	221	1.7	2.7	+1.0	3.4	5.5	+2.1
13 or more	38	38	0.0	0.0	0.0	38	1.6	2.1	+0.5	3.1	4.1	+1.0
Total or average	542	553	3.5	3.1	-0.4	571	2.2	2.9	+0.7	4.6	5.8	+1.2

^a See Table 2.2, n.b.

Although white youth continue to exhibit the negative age effect, the annual measures indicate that unemployment experiences worsened longitudinally among young black men.

Among whites the three unemployment measures provide the same picture of longitudinal change only for those at the extremes of the educational attainment spectrum. According to all three measures, the effect of maturation is to reduce the likelihood of unemployment among young men who never entered high school. In addition, college graduates exhibit perfectly stable experiences irrespective of the measure.¹⁰ Among black youth, it is only in the case of high school dropouts that all three measures of longitudinal change in unemployment indicate the same direction of change. For this group joblessness increased during the two-year span. In summary, the "age" effect on unemployment experience does not operate systematically for young men of all educational attainment levels.¹¹

Color Irrespective of which measure of longitudinal change is employed, the data indicate that the unemployment experience of young white men improved more, or deteriorated less, than that of their black counterparts. Furthermore, this is true within all but one of the subgroups of youth classified by schooling completed. For that exception, namely high school graduates, the decline in the survey week unemployment rate of blacks was absolutely and relatively greater than the corresponding change among whites. In contrast, the annual measures show minimal change among whites while for blacks the mean weeks of unemployment per year rises by a full week and the weeks unemployed as a proportion of weeks in the labor force increases from 3.4 to 5.5 percent. All in all, blacks fared less well than whites.

III YOUNG MEN WHO LEFT SCHOOL SUBSEQUENT TO THE INITIAL SURVEY

At this point we substantially alter the examination of longitudinal change in labor force and employment status of out-of-school youth in two ways. First, the focus is on changes over the course of a single year, namely the 12 months between the 1967 and 1968 interviews. Second, the

10 However, it does not seem reasonable to interpret this as evidence of an age effect overcoming the impact of a deterioration in the external economic climate since it is not clear that the latter actually characterizes the labor market in which college graduates operate.

11 Tabulations not presented here yield a similar conclusion regarding the age effect where educational attainment and comparative marital status are controlled.

population of nonstudents which is examined consists of young men who were enrolled in school at the time of the initial survey (1966) but were not enrolled at the dates of the subsequent two surveys. The principal reason for devoting attention to this group is to provide a preliminary analysis of the comparative experiences of school dropouts and graduates.¹² By controlling simultaneously for highest year of school completed and date last enrolled, the impact on labor market status of leaving school is not confounded by intercorrelations with age and potential amount of labor market exposure.¹³

Following the procedure used in earlier sections of this report, comparisons of cross-sectional data are relied upon to provide a guide to differences in general economic conditions faced by the group whose longitudinal experiences are being examined. This is done in order to ascertain the extent to which observed changes in labor force and employment status are attributable to characteristics (or changes therein) of the individuals under study. By and large, the CPS data indicate that there was little difference between the 1967 and 1968 labor market conditions faced by nonstudents 16 to 24 years of age (Table 2.6). Slight decreases in participation characterized all education subgroups of the cohort. On the other hand, the unemployment rate difference exhibits no discernible pattern; it is negligible for high school and college dropouts, it is slightly negative among high school graduates, and college graduates experienced a substantial increase in the probability of being unemployed.¹⁴

12 It should be borne in mind that more than one-fifth of the young men who left school between the 1966 and 1967 surveys were not reinterviewed in 1968. However, the potential impact of this for our findings is slight since about 70 percent of that attrition is attributable to entrance into the armed forces. Furthermore, there is no a priori reason to believe that the remainder of the noninterviewees (i.e., about 6 percent of the initial sample) were distributed differently from the total sample according to educational attainment.

13 Thus, the maximum potential difference between graduates and dropouts in post-school labor market exposure before the year which is studied is 11 months. This maximum would occur only if all dropouts left school within a few weeks after the October 1966 interview and if all graduates received their diplomas (degrees) at the end of the summer of 1967. Since graduations typically occur in early June, it seems safe to assume that the real average difference is five or six months in favor of dropouts.

14 Unfortunately, cross-sectional data which are simultaneously controlled for age, education, color, and sex are not available. The particular data presented in Table 2.6 were selected because of the focus of this section of the chapter. However, two relevant implications of other cross-sectional results should be noted. First, the minimal differences between 1967 and 1968 do not typify every age group. White 16- and 17-year olds experienced a considerable decline in unemployment rate between the dates. Second, in contrast to white, black youth were more likely to be unemployed in the second year than in the first.

Table 2.6 Labor Force Participation Rate and Unemployment Rate of Men 16 to 24 Years of Age in the Civilian Noninstitutional Population Not Enrolled in School According to the Current Population Survey, by Level of Schooling Completed October 1967 and October 1968^a

Level of schooling completed	Population (thousands)		Labor force participation rate		Change in rate (1968-1967)	Unemployment rate		Change in rate (1968-1967)
	1967	1968	1967	1968		1967	1968	
Some high school	2,072	2,044	90.1	89.5	-0.6	9.8	10.0	+0.2
High school diploma	2,633	2,546	95.1	94.6	-0.5	3.0	1.8	-1.2
Some college	841	857	95.6	93.2	-2.4	3.5	3.4	-0.1
College degree	277	346	99.3	99.1	-0.2	1.8	4.1	+2.3
Total or average ^b	5,823	5,793	93.6	92.9	-0.7	6.1	6.0	-0.1

a Edward J. O'Boyle, Employment of High School Graduates and Dropouts in 1967, Special Labor Force Report No. 100 (Washington, D.C.: U.S. Department of Labor, Bureau of Labor Statistics, 1968), Tables A, B, and G, pages 5, 6, 11; Vera C. Perrella, Employment of High School Graduates and Dropouts, October, 1968, Special Labor Force Report No. 108 (Washington, D.C.: U.S. Department of Labor, Bureau of Labor Statistics, 1969), Tables A, B, and G, pages 6, 7, 12.

b Computed as weighted average of the four level-of-schooling groups.

The longitudinal results imply that among youth who have recently discontinued their schooling an increment of one year's experience and maturity has an unsystematic effect on labor force participation. For whites, the 1967-1968 change in participation rate among high school dropouts, college graduates, and college dropouts is consistent with a hypothesis of a positive effect of aging on participation. In the former two groups, participation increased (by 7.0 and 2.3 percentage points, respectively) in the face of slight cross-sectional declines (Table 2.7). On the other hand, the longitudinal decline of 1.0 percentage point in the rate among high school graduates is virtually the same as the cross-sectional difference observed for this group.

The longitudinal data concerning the probability of being unemployed present quite a different picture. For both color groups, there is evidence of a systematic interaction between labor market experience and educational attainment. That is, aging diminishes the likelihood of unemployment successively more as one goes up the educational attainment scale. The principal result of this interaction is a widening of the difference in unemployment rates between high school graduates and dropouts. This result is particularly interesting because it contrasts with the widely held conviction that graduate-dropout differences diminish over time.¹⁵ Our data suggest that at least in the earliest phase of the transition from school to work, this may not be true of the probability of being unemployed.

Additional support for the enlarged gap between youth who complete high school and those who do not is evident in the comparison of the disemployment rates of the two groups. That is, among young men employed at the time of the 1967 survey those who left school after finishing the twelfth grade were much less likely than dropouts to be either out of the labor force or unemployed at the time of the 1968 survey. The respective disemployment rates for whites are 3.0 and 5.7 percent, and for blacks they are 0.0 and 15.2 percent. Tabulations not shown here indicate that among dropouts about half of the movement out of employment was into unemployment. That is, the data suggest that a substantial fraction of the absolute increase in unemployment rate among high school dropouts of both color groups is attributable to the disemployment phenomenon.

Information on the labor force and employment activities of the youth in question during the 12 months between the surveys tends to reinforce the conclusions drawn on the basis of comparisons of the survey week status (Table 2.8). For example, the increased disparity in unemployment rates

15 Examples of cross-sectional data which are used to support the hypothesis of narrowing differences can be found in Edward Kalachek, The Youth Labor Market, Policy Paper in Human Resources and Industrial Relations No. 12 (Ann Arbor: University of Michigan/Wayne State University Institute of Labor and Industrial Relations, 1969), pp. 69-71.

Table 2.7 Comparison of Selected Measures of Labor Force and Employment Status 1967 and 1968 Survey Weeks, by Level of Schooling Completed and Color: Youth 16 to 26 Years of Age in 1968 Who Were Enrolled in School in 1966 and Not Enrolled in 1967 and 1968

Level of schooling completed	Total number (thousands)	Survey week labor force participation rate		Change in rate (1968-1967)	Survey week unemployment rate		Change in rate (1968-1967)	Total number employed in 1967 survey week (thousands)	Disemployment rate (percent) ^a
		1967	1968		1967	1968			
WHITES									
Less than high school graduation ^b High school diploma Some college College degree Total or average	198	82.5	89.5	+7.0	6.3	11.1	+4.8	153	5.7
	263	98.9	97.9	-1.0	2.9	1.6	-1.3	252	3.0
	245	94.7	94.7	0.0	1.8	0.0	-1.8	227	2.3
	164	97.7	100.0	+2.3	16.2	0.0	-16.2	135	0.0
	870	93.8	95.6	+1.8	5.9	2.8	-2.9	768	2.7
BLACKS									
Less than high school graduation ^b High school diploma Some college College degree Total or average	51	85.8	85.1	-0.7	6.8	10.6	+3.8	42	15.2
	56	91.0	100.0	+9.0	16.8	0.0	-16.8	43	0.0
	14	c	c	c	c	c	c	10	c
	5	c	c	c	c	c	c	5	c
	127	90.2	94.0	+3.8	13.5	3.8	-9.7	100	6.3

a Proportion of those employed during the 1967 survey week who were either unemployed or out of the labor force during the 1968 survey week.

b Includes some young men who never entered high school.

c Rates not shown where base represents fewer than 25 sample cases.

Table 2.8 Labor Force and Employment Experience between the 1967 and 1968 Surveys, by Level of Schooling Completed and Color: Youth 16 to 26 Years of Age in 1968 Who Were Enrolled in School in 1966 and Not Enrolled in 1967 and 1968

Level of schooling completed	Total number (thousands)	Mean weeks in the labor force	Mean weeks unemployed	Weeks unemployed as percent of weeks in the labor force
WHITES				
Less than high school graduate ^a	198	43.3	4.3	9.9
High school graduate	263	49.6	0.8	1.6
Some college	245	47.5	0.3	0.6
College graduate	164	50.6	1.4	2.8
Total or average	870	47.8	1.6	3.3
BLACKS				
Less than high school graduate ^a	51	41.3	3.2	7.7
High school graduate	56	41.8	2.1	5.0
Some college	14	b	b	b
College graduate	5	b	b	b
Total or average	127	43.3	3.1	7.2

a Includes some young men who never entered high school.

b Means and percentages not shown where base represents fewer than 25 sample cases.

between whites with a high school diploma and their counterparts who dropped out is reflected in the fact that the former group spent only one-fifth as many weeks unemployed during the year. To put it somewhat differently, white graduates of secondary schools were unemployed, on average, 1.6 percent of the time that they were in the labor force while the analogous rate among those who never graduated is 9.9 percent.

IV SUMMARY

Theoretically, changes that occur in the labor force and employment status of a group of individuals over a period of time may be explained in terms of changes in the characteristics of the individuals or of changes in the external environment. Using CPS cross-sectional results to "control" for differences in labor market conditions at the times of the 1966 and 1968 surveys, the data in the present chapter are consistent with the hypothesis of a positive effect of "aging" on labor force participation. This conclusion is particularly interesting in view of the fact that the men studied here are in their early twenties and have been out of school for at least two years. In addition, the conclusion follows from longitudinal change in both measures of participation, namely survey week participation rate and average weeks in the labor force during the 12-month periods preceding the 1967 and 1968 surveys.

There is also strong evidence that the impact of the "aging" phenomenon varies directly with level of educational attainment, and that it is more uniformly positive among blacks than among whites. Furthermore, the initial intercolor difference in participation in favor of whites is found to narrow considerably--i.e., from 2.8 to 0.3 percentage points. Finally, the results here support our conclusion based on one-year longitudinal data that a change in marital status has no substantial effect on change in the extent of labor market activity.

Using the conventional measure of survey week unemployment rate, there is a strong negative effect of age on the probability of a young man's being unemployed. The measures of annual unemployment experience generally confirm this association, though more consistently among whites. As was found to be true of the impact of "aging" on participation, the effect of maturation is different depending on level of schooling completed. With the exception of young men who have completed exactly 12 years of school, the unemployment experience of blacks improved less, or deteriorated more, than that of their white counterparts. A detailed examination of two other dimensions of the longitudinal unemployment experiences of this group of out-of-school youth appears in the next chapter.

From a brief examination of one-year longitudinal changes in labor force and employment status among recent school leavers we conclude that the increment of a year's experience and maturity, even early in the transition from school to work, has a discernible impact on labor force activity. The data are generally consistent with the expectations of a positive effect on participation and a negative one on unemployment. Moreover, the results imply an interaction between aging and educational attainment whose result is to widen the difference in unemployment rate between high school dropouts and graduates.

CUMULATIVE DURATION AND SPELLS OF UNEMPLOYMENT OVER A TWO-YEAR PERIOD:
OUT-OF-SCHOOL YOUTH

I INTRODUCTION

As economists and policy makers have long recognized, social action to ameliorate the "problem" of youth unemployment can take many forms, depending on the sources and incidence of that unemployment. Thus, the past decade has witnessed a variety of federal programs in this sphere including MDTA, the Economic Opportunity Act, Youth Opportunity Centers, Neighborhood Youth Corps, and the Job Corps. Yet, the "problem" persists, at least as measured by the continuation of disproportionately high rates of joblessness among young men. In this chapter two other dimensions of the unemployment experiences of young men who have ended their formal schooling are examined,¹ namely the duration and repetitive incidence of joblessness.

In order to investigate unemployment experience during the total 24-month period between the first and third interviews, somewhat unconventional measures are employed and warrant some introductory comment. First, the repetitiveness dimension is represented by the percent of any particular group of young men who experienced more than one spell of unemployment during the two years. A "spell" is defined as a continuous period of unemployment of at least one week's duration. This measure of repetitiveness is the focus of the second section of this chapter. Section III is devoted to the duration dimension, which dictates narrowing the consideration to those who experienced one or more spells. The two measures utilized in this discussion are mean number of weeks unemployed during the 24 months and mean number of weeks per spell of unemployment.² The latter concept supplements the former one inasmuch as it permits the

* This chapter was written by Andrew I. Kohen.

1 The specific universe under study is men 16 to 26 years of age (in 1968) who were not enrolled in school at the time of the 1966 survey nor subsequently.

2 It should be noted that there is some indeterminacy in our measure of duration because of the fact that interviews are not conducted on precisely the same date each year. Thus, for example, adding up the weeks unemployed during the two supposedly-successive 12-month periods may involve some double-counting or gaps.

identification of different kinds of unemployment which would be indistinguishable from a simple examination of average weeks. For example, 12 weeks of unemployment which occur during a single spell and 12 weeks which are spread over four separate spells may well be symptomatic of different problems and probably imply different remedies. A brief summary concludes the chapter.

II. INCIDENCE AND REPETITION OF UNEMPLOYMENT

Age

More than one-fourth of the approximately four-and-a-half million young men between 16 and 26 who were continuously out of school between the 1966 and 1968 interviews experienced at least one spell of unemployment during that period (Table 3.1). As is the case with other measures of the incidence of joblessness, the percent with one or more spells exhibits a pronounced inverse relationship with age. What is more interesting, however, is that the likelihood of multiple spells of unemployment bears an even stronger negative relation with age. Thus, although the probability of a single spell of joblessness is greater for men under 21 than for those 21 to 26, the difference in the probability of several spells is even larger. As an extreme example, among whites, 16 to 18 year old men were twice as likely (25 percent versus 12 percent) as those 25 and 26 to experience exactly one spell during the two years. The corresponding ratio of the probabilities of three or more spells is nearly seven to one (20 percent compared to 3 percent). The data for blacks are similar, though the relative differences are not as striking. Clearly, it is not possible to speak of a pure "age effect" on the basis of these results because of the strong correlation between age and educational attainment. However, data presented below which control for education completed suggest that maturation and labor market experience do make an independent contribution to reducing the probability of repeated periods of unemployment.

Color

As was expected, a substantial intercolor difference in unemployment experience is evident and persists within every age grouping. Overall, more than two-fifths of the blacks compared to one-fourth of the whites had at least one spell during the two years. Despite the large absolute disparity in incidence, the intercolor difference in repetitiveness is even greater. Whereas only one in twenty young white men experienced three or more spells of unemployment, the corresponding proportion among black men is nearly one in five. This disparity does not appear to be mitigated by age, and in fact, it is most pronounced among men in their mid-twenties. It is clearly inappropriate at this juncture to speculate about the sources of this pervasive intercolor difference. However, the issue is considered at subsequent points of the chapter where relevant data can be brought to bear on it.

Table 3.1 Proportion of Out-of-School Youth^a Experiencing Unemployment between the 1966 and 1968 Surveys, by Number of Spells of Unemployment during the Period, Age in 1968, and Color

Age in 1968	Total number (thousands)	Percent with one spell	Percent with two spells	Percent with three or more spells	Percent with one or more spells	
	WHITES					
	16 to 18	104	25	14	20	59
	19 and 20	408	17	11	7	35
	21 and 22	943	14	6	7	27
	23 and 24	1,134	15	7	4	26
	25 and 26	1,386	12	4	3	19
	Total or average	3,975	14	6	5	25
	BLACKS					
	16 to 18	33	27	15	26	68
	19 and 20	95	19	15	23	57
	21 and 22	164	15	9	21	46
	23 and 24	171	14	8	14	36
	25 and 26	209	20	5	14	39
	Total or average	669	18	9	18	44

a Unless otherwise noted, the tables in this chapter refer to youth 16 to 26 years of age in 1968 who were not enrolled in school at the time of the 1966, 1967, and 1968 surveys.

Education

Although the data are generally consistent with the hypothesis of a negative association between education and unemployment, there is evidence that the relationship is nonlinear. Among whites, the incidence of one or more spells declines precipitously at generally acknowledged legitimate completion levels, i.e., high school and college graduation (Table 3.2). Yet, there is no appreciable difference between high school dropouts and youth who completed fewer than nine years of school on the one hand, or between college dropouts and high school graduates on the other. A similar relationship is discernible among young black men with 12 or fewer years of schooling.³ Irregularity also characterizes the negative association between education and the incidence of repeated joblessness. These observed nonlinearities are consistent with the hypothesis that age has an independent negative effect on the likelihood of experiencing unemployment. As an extreme example, the group of youth with fewer than nine years of schooling undoubtedly contains a much larger proportion of 16-to 18-year-olds than does the group of college graduates. Thus, the six-fold greater incidence of unemployment in the former group relative to the latter group is probably attributable to the combined effects of age and education (i.e., the former group is both younger and less skilled).

A further implication of the data in Table 3.2 is that the intercolor difference in the incidence of unemployment is only minimally attributable to black-white differences in years of schooling completed.⁴ Among young men with college training, both color groups have the same proportion who experienced at least one spell. On the other hand, the intercolor difference among high school graduates is greater than the corresponding gap among those with only a grade school education. It is equally clear that the much higher probability of a black than a white young man experiencing repeated spells of unemployment is not principally due to a difference in the average number of years of school completed. In each educational attainment category whites are less than one-half as likely as blacks to have had three or more spells. Yet, the absolute intercolor difference in the proportion with more than one spell does decline steadily from 17 percentage points among men who never entered high school to 9 percentage points among those with some college.

3 There are too few black college graduates in the sample to permit examination of their experiences in a manner similar to their white counterparts.

4 If the incidence of unemployment among blacks is "standardized" by assigning to them the total cohort's distribution according to education, the overall proportion of blacks with at least one spell declines from 44 percent to 40 percent.

Table 3.2

Proportion of Out-of-School Youth Experiencing Unemployment between the 1966 and 1968 Surveys, by Number of Spells of Unemployment during the Period, Highest Year of School Completed, and Color

Highest year of school completed	Total number (thousands)	Percent with one spell	Percent with two spells	Percent with three or more spells	Percent with one or more spells
WHITES					
8 or fewer	568	20	6	9	36
9 to 11	888	16	10	6	32
12	1,891	12	6	4	22
13 to 15	382	15	3	4	22
16 or more	248	6	0	0	6
Total or average	3,975	14	6	5	25
BLACKS					
8 or fewer	167	14	10	22	46
9 to 11	210	21	10	21	52
12	254	18	8	12	38
13 to 15	32	8	0	16	24
16 or more	7	a	a	a	a
Total or average	669	18	9	18	44

a Percent not shown where base represents fewer than 25 sample cases.

Despite these strong conclusions, it is premature to suggest that mitigation of the intercolor difference in unemployment cannot be obtained through educational policy. For one thing, current tabulations do not permit any control for differential quality of schooling. For another, there is evidence of an intercolor difference in age-grade retardation⁵ whose impact cannot be examined with the present form of the data. Thus, the black 16-year-old high school dropout has, on average, completed fewer years of school than his white counterpart. This must be considered because of the earlier finding that there is an interaction between age and education as they influence susceptibility to unemployment. Finally, there is some evidence that a difference in the high school curricula pursued by blacks and whites accounts for part of the intercolor disparity. Among high school graduates who did not go on to college and who completed a vocational curriculum, the unemployment experiences of blacks and whites are virtually identical (Table 3.3).⁶ Yet, black graduates of the general curriculum exhibit a much greater incidence and repetition of spells than their white counterparts. Furthermore, a considerably smaller proportion of the black men (10 percent) than of the white (24 percent) followed the curricula whose graduates had the lowest probability of unemployment, namely the college preparatory and commercial programs.

Occupational Training

The extent of a young man's vocational training outside regular school was also expected to be related to his susceptibility to unemployment. On the one hand, there are reasons to anticipate that the receipt of training during the two-year period being studied would be associated with a higher incidence of unemployment. That is, young men who make job shifts, whether voluntary or involuntary, are more likely than those who do not both to experience a spell of unemployment and to undergo some training in connection with a new job. On the other hand, effective occupational training should be expected to stabilize the employment experience of its recipients. The data for high school graduates of both color groups and for blacks with less than 12 years of schooling suggest a positive association between training and unemployment which is consistent with the first reason above (Table 3.4). The data for whites with less than a high school education imply just the opposite. From a policy point of view, what is perhaps more noteworthy than the equivocal results is the fact that several hundred thousand young men who experienced more than one spell of unemployment during the period received no occupational training.

5 For example see Parnes, et al., Career Thresholds, Vol. I, p. 22.

6 The table is limited to graduates because there are too few dropouts in any curriculum other than general.

Table 3.3 Proportion of Out-of-School Youth Experiencing Unemployment between the 1966 and 1968 Surveys, by Number of Spells of Unemployment during the Period, High School Curriculum, and Color: Youth Who Had Completed Exactly 12 Years of School

High school curriculum	Total number (thousands)	Percent with one spell	Percent with two spells	Percent with three or more spells	Percent with one or more spells
WHITES					
Vocational	296	16	8	4	29
General	1,135	12	4	5	21
College preparatory	310	9	6	2	18
Commercial	113	12	0	5	17
Total or average	1,891	12	6	4	22
BLACKS					
Vocational	46	15	11	2	28
General	171	19	10	17	46
College preparatory	20	a	a	a	a
Commercial	5	a	a	a	a
Total or average	254	18	8	12	38

a Percent not shown where base represents fewer than 25 sample cases.

Table 3.4 Proportion of Out-of-School Youth Experiencing Unemployment between the 1966 and 1968 Surveys, by Number of Spells of Unemployment during the Period, Highest Year of School Completed, Extent of Occupational Training during the Period, and Color: Youth Who Never Attended College

Highest year of school completed and extent of occupational training received between 1966 and 1968 surveys	Total number (thousands)	Percent with one spell	Percent with two spells	Percent with three or more spells	Percent with one or more spells
WHITES					
<u>Less than 12</u>					
No training programs	1,141	19	8	7	34
One program	251	8	12	6	26
Total or average ^a	1,454	18	8	7	34
<u>12</u>					
No training programs	1,179	9	5	5	19
One program	461	22	5	2	28
Two or more programs	252	12	9	5	25
Total or average	1,891	12	6	4	22
BLACKS					
<u>Less than 12</u>					
No training programs	311	18	9	19	45
One program	52	21	16	41	77
Total or average ^a	377	18	10	22	50
<u>12</u>					
No training programs	178	17	9	12	38
One program	61	22	9	11	42
Two or more programs	14	b	b	b	b
Total or average	254	18	8	12	38

a Includes youth with two or more programs.

b Percent not shown where base represents fewer than 25 sample cases.

Occupational Information⁷

The tabulations relating unemployment experience to extent of occupational information do not illustrate a consistent association between the two variables (Table 3.5). There is only one group of men, namely whites with fewer than 12 years of schooling, among whom the level of occupational knowledge appears to have the expected negative relationship with the incidence of unemployment.⁸ Even in this case we cannot be certain because the group is quite heterogeneous with respect to actual number of years of school completed and the latter is highly correlated with scores on the test of occupational information.

However, the data do provide some additional insights into the effect of education and into intercolor differences in unemployment. First, years of schooling completed seems to have less impact for those with extensive labor market information. For example, among white men with high scores, those who graduated from high school have only slightly better records with respect to incidence and repetitiveness of unemployment than those who did not. This qualifies the finding that secondary school graduation seems to be a crucial threshold for diminishing the susceptibility to unemployment. It appears to be far more crucial to those who have not accumulated substantial information about the labor market prior to graduation. Second, the intercolor difference in unemployment experience appears to be greater among those with high scores than among those with low scores on the occupational information test. Not only is the black-white disparity widest among those with high scores, but it virtually disappears among those with low scores. The only explanation which occurs to us for this perplexing result is that it is reflecting differences in high school curricula. That is, students in the vocational curriculum typically have low scores,⁹ and the intercolor difference in unemployment experience among students from that program is negligible.

Other Labor Market Experience during the Period

As noted earlier, job changing during the two years being studied was expected to bear a strong positive relation to unemployment incidence and repetition. This hypothesis is unambiguously supported by both of

7 This variable is measured by the score on a test administered to all respondents at the time of the initial (1966) survey. A discussion of the test and correlates of the scores are contained in Parnes, et al., Career Thresholds, Vol. I, Chapter 5.

8 Men who completed one or more years of college are excluded from the table because too few of them had other than high scores.

9 Parnes, et al., Career Thresholds, Vol. I, p. 129.

Table 3.5 Proportion of Out-of-School Youth Experiencing Unemployment between the 1966 and 1968 Surveys, by Number of Spells of Unemployment during the Period, Highest Year of School Completed, Score on 1966 Occupational Information Test, and Color: Youth Who Never Attended College

Highest year of school completed and score on 1966 occupational information test	Total number (thousands)	Percent with one spell	Percent with two spells	Percent with three or more spells	Percent with one or more spells
WHITES					
<u>Less than 12</u>					
High	409	16	6	5	28
Medium	463	14	13	10	38
Low	483	23	6	7	37
Total or average	1,454	18	8	7	34
<u>12</u>					
High	929	16	5	3	24
Medium	806	8	5	6	20
Low	157	12	9	6	27
Total or average	1,891	12	6	4	22
BLACKS					
<u>Less than 12</u>					
High	21	a	a	a	a
Medium	86	21	8	29	58
Low	270	16	11	18	45
Total or average	377	18	10	22	50
<u>12</u>					
High	43	14	16	22	52
Medium	136	21	8	13	42
Low	75	14	6	5	24
Total or average	254	18	8	12	38

a Percentage not shown where base represents fewer than 25 sample cases.

our measures of job changing; namely (1) comparison of job status at the times of the 1966, 1967, and 1968 surveys and (2) total number of interfirm shifts during the 24-month period (Table 3.6). Young white men with the same employer at all three survey dates were only one-fifth as likely as those with three different employers to have experienced a spell of unemployment and only one-eighth as likely to have had more than one spell. The corresponding comparative probabilities among black youth are one-fourth and one-seventh. For both color groups the incidence (one or more spells) and repetitiveness (three or more spells) increase monotonically with the number of interfirm shifts made. In addition, among whites there is some evidence that occupational movement, whether or not it accompanies employer changing, also increases the likelihood of unemployment.

Finally, there is evidence that survey week unemployment rates and the number of spells of unemployment offer somewhat different pictures of the incidence of unemployment. Only in 1967 among white men are the survey week rates systematically related to the cumulative number of spells experienced during the two-year period (Table 3.7). Using both of the measures, the data indicate a difference in the timing of the jobless period between young men with only one spell and those with more than one spell. For both color groups, men with only one incident of unemployment seem to have experienced it early in the 24 months. In contrast, those with at least three spells appear to have had repeated periods during the middle of the time span.

III DURATION OF UNEMPLOYMENT

The nearly 1.3 million young men who experienced at least one spell of unemployment over the two years between the 1966 and 1968 surveys spent an average of 12 weeks unemployed during the period. The mean duration per spell of unemployment was almost seven weeks. As might be expected, there is a regular, positive association between the number of spells and cumulative amount of joblessness (Table 3.8). For blacks the data also indicate an inverse relationship between number of spells and duration per spell; average duration declines from 10.4 weeks among youth with a single incident to 5.4 weeks among those with four or more spells.

Age and Color

As was anticipated because of the negative relation between age and repetitiveness of unemployment, the amount of time spent looking for work or on layoff declines substantially with age (Table 3.9). The mean duration of unemployment among 19- and 20-year-olds is more than twice that among men 24 and older, irrespective of color and method of measuring duration. Once again, a "pure" effect of age cannot be identified because of the correlation between age and educational attainment. Although on average black youth had a longer duration of joblessness than their white counterparts, this intercolor difference does not persist in each age

Table 3.6 Proportion of Out-of-School Youth Experiencing Unemployment between the 1966 and 1968 Surveys, by Number of Spells of Unemployment during the Period, Selected Measures of Job Changing Experience during the Period, and Color

Measure of job changing experience between 1966 and 1968 surveys	Total number (thousands)	Percent with one spell	Percent with two spells	Percent with three or more spells	Percent with one or more spells
WHITES					
<u>Comparison of job status^a</u>					
<u>1966-1967-1968 surveys</u>					
Same employer all 3 years	1,807	6	2	1	9
Same occupation all 3 years	1,203	4	2	2	8
Other	604	8	2	1	11
Same employer 2 consecutive years	1,106	21	6	3	30
Same occupation all 3 years	166	16	6	3	25
Other	940	22	6	3	31
Different employer all 3 years ^b	625	23	13	12	48
<u>Total number of interfirm shifts</u>					
None	1,707	6	2	1	8
1	980	20	5	3	28
2	614	20	8	8	35
3	332	25	20	8	53
4	132	19	21	14	55
5 or more	176	16	13	40	69
BLACKS					
<u>Comparison of job status^a</u>					
<u>1966-1967-1968 surveys</u>					
Same employer all 3 years	192	9	3	3	15
Same occupation all 3 years	130	11	3	3	17
Other	62	7	2	4	13
Same employer 2 consecutive years	201	24	6	15	44
Same occupation all 3 years	26	11	8	36	56
Other	176	25	5	12	42
Different employer all 3 years ^b	147	15	20	22	57
<u>Total number of interfirm shifts</u>					
None	190	9	3	4	16
1	147	31	4	9	43
2	154	19	14	16	48
3	84	16	18	31	65
4	42	16	11	52	78
5 or more	48	11	20	53	84

a Includes only youth employed at all three survey dates.

b Includes some youths with the same employer in 1966 and 1968 but with a different employer in 1967.

Table 3.7 Unemployment Rate in 1966, 1967, and 1968 Survey Weeks, by
 Number of Spells of Unemployment between the 1966 and 1968
 Surveys and Color

Number of spells of unemployment between 1966 and 1968 surveys	Total number (thousands)	Survey unemployment rate			
		1966	1967	1968	
	WHITES				
	None	2,909	1.4	0.0	0.0
	1	558	4.6	2.8	1.7
	2	237	3.6	8.8	0.0
	3 or more	205	9.1	14.7	7.7
	Total or average	3,940	2.4	1.8	0.8
	BLACKS				
	None	363	2.3	0.0	0.0
	1	115	8.5	7.3	4.3
	2	57	6.5	4.5	1.8
	3 or more	113	6.7	20.1	11.0
	Total or average	665	5.7	6.5	2.9

Table 3.8 Mean Weeks Unemployed and Mean Weeks per Spell of Unemployment Experienced by Out-of-School Youth between the 1966 and 1968 Surveys, by Number of Spells of Unemployment during the Period and Color: Youth Who Experienced at Least One Spell of Unemployment between the 1966 and 1968 Surveys^a

Number of spells of unemployment between 1966 and 1968 surveys	WHITES			BLACKS		
	Total number (thousands)	Mean weeks unemployed 1966 to 1968	Mean weeks per spell ^b	Total number (thousands)	Mean weeks unemployed 1966 to 1968	Mean weeks per spell ^b
1	559	7.5	7.5	115	10.4	10.4
2	237	11.1	5.5	58	12.0	6.0
3	135	18.9	6.3	80	17.8	5.9
4 or more	70	c	c	35	26.1	5.4
Total or average	1,001	11.3	6.6	288	14.7	7.7

a This universe restriction applies to all subsequent tables in this chapter.

b Means computed from grouped data.

c Mean not shown where base represents fewer than 25 sample cases.

Table 3.9 Mean Weeks Unemployed and Mean Weeks per Spell of Unemployment Experienced by Out-of-School Youth between the 1966 and 1968 Surveys, by Age in 1968 and Color

Age in 1968	WHITES			BLACKS		
	Total number (thousands)	Mean weeks unemployed 1966 to 1968	Mean weeks per spell ^a	Total number (thousands)	Mean weeks unemployed 1966 to 1968	Mean weeks per spell ^a
16 to 18	57	b	b	22	b	b
19 and 20	142	15.2	8.7	53	26.8	13.9
21 to 23	405	13.5	8.2	98	11.8	6.5
24 to 26	397	7.0	4.5	117	12.3	6.2
Total or average	1,001	11.3	6.6	288	14.7	7.7

a Means computed from grouped data.

b Mean not shown where base represents fewer than 25 sample cases.

group for either measure of duration. Among men 21 to 23 years of age, mean cumulative weeks unemployed for whites is about one-and-one-half weeks greater than for blacks. Thus, the previously noted pervasive intercolor difference in the incidence and repetitiveness of unemployment is mitigated somewhat by a less consistent difference in duration.

Education¹⁰

There is some evidence for whites that cumulative duration of unemployment during the two-year period declines with number of years of school completed, though the association is not perfectly regular (Table 3.10). On the other hand, for both color groups there is a monotonic negative relationship between schooling and duration per spell. This probably reflects, at least in part, the fact that less-educated young men are more prone than their better-educated counterparts to involuntary job separations and extended periods of layoff. It is well to note that while there is a consistent intercolor difference in cumulative duration of unemployment when educational attainment is controlled, the same is not true for average duration per spell. In fact, it is rather surprising that among high school dropouts mean weeks per spell is greater for whites than for blacks, since the latter probably have completed fewer years of schooling than the former.

Occupational Information

Within the only category of educational attainment with sufficient sample cases to permit analysis, the data (at least for white youth) are consistent with a hypothesis that duration of unemployment is inversely related to the extent of occupational information (Table 3.11).¹¹ For whites, the mean weeks per spell of unemployment among youth with high scores is only three-fourths as great as the mean among those with medium scores and only two-fifths as great as the average for those with low scores. These results imply that even among young men with minimal formal training, increased labor market information substantially improves the efficiency of job search.

10 The relationship between duration and vocational training cannot be examined because of the small samples in the several categories of training once years of school completed is controlled.

11 It is interesting to note that among whites with high scores the average number of weeks per spell of unemployment is actually higher among high school graduates than among those with less than 12 years of education. This reversal of the impact of education is similar to what was found regarding the incidence and repetition of unemployment when extent of occupational information is controlled (page 59 above).

Table 3.10 Mean Weeks Unemployed and Mean Weeks per Spell of Unemployment Experienced by Out-of-School Youth between the 1966 and 1968 Surveys, by Highest Year of School Completed and Color

Highest year of school completed	WHITES			BLACKS		
	Total number (thousands)	Mean weeks unemployed 1966 to 1968	Mean weeks per spell ^a	Total number (thousands)	Mean weeks unemployed 1966 to 1968	Mean weeks per spell ^a
8 or fewer	196	12.4	8.2	78	13.8	10.2
9 to 11	287	14.4	7.5	106	15.2	6.7
12	420	9.7	6.0	95	14.4	6.6
13 or more	99	7.4	5.5	11	b	b
Total or average	1,001	11.3	6.6	288	14.7	7.7

a Means computed from grouped data.

b Mean not shown where base represents fewer than 25 sample cases.

Table 3.11 Mean Weeks Unemployed and Mean Weeks per Spell of Unemployment Experienced by Out-of-School Youth between the 1966 and 1968 Surveys, by Score on 1966 Occupational Information Test and Color: Youth Who Completed Fewer than 12 Years of School

Score on 1966 occupational information test	WHITES			BLACKS		
	Total number (thousands)	Mean weeks unemployed 1966 to 1968	Mean weeks per spell ^a	Total number (thousands)	Mean weeks unemployed 1966 to 1968	Mean weeks per spell ^a
High	111	7.6	4.7	16	b	b
Medium	205	14.5	6.3	47	15.5	6.9
Low	167	16.3	11.2	121	14.9	9.2
Total or average	483	13.6	7.8	184	14.6	8.2

a Means computed from grouped data.

b Mean not shown where base represents fewer than 25 sample cases.

Other Labor Market Experience during the Period

The duration of unemployment appears to be positively related to only one of the measures of job changing during the 24-month period, and the association is more regular and pronounced among blacks (Table 3.12). Young black men who were with the same employer at all three survey dates, but experienced some joblessness nonetheless, averaged 5.2 weeks per spell of unemployment compared to the mean of 6.6 weeks among those who were with a different job at each of the three surveys. On the other hand, there is no consistent relationship between duration and total number of interfirm shifts for either color group. The latter result suggests that the amount of time spent between jobs by highly mobile youth is about the same as the duration of a temporary layoff experienced by young men who are less mobile between employers. Finally, as one would expect, the duration of unemployment experienced by those who were employed at each of the survey dates is considerably less than the length of joblessness among those who were not employed at one or more of the dates. Tabulations not shown here indicate that the magnitude of this difference is about 14 cumulative weeks during the 24 months.

IV SUMMARY

In order to examine the unemployment experiences of out-of-school youth in more detail this chapter has been devoted to analysis of the repetitive incidence and the duration of joblessness during the two-year span between the first and third interviews. While fewer than 3 percent of the whites and 7 percent of the blacks were unemployed at any one of the three survey dates, the proportions who experienced at least one spell of unemployment during the 24 months are 25 percent and 44 percent, respectively. The data indicate for blacks as well as for whites that both age and education operate to diminish the likelihood of multiple spells of unemployment. Furthermore, it is clear that the much higher probability of a black than of a white young man experiencing repeated spells of unemployment is only minimally attributable to the intercolor difference in years of schooling completed. Yet, this conclusion does not deny the potential usefulness of educational policy in mitigating the intercolor difference in unemployment. First, among young men who terminated their schooling with a high school diploma and who followed a vocational curriculum, blacks fare no worse than whites. Second, the current analysis does not control for two intercolor differences which may be expected to have an impact on unemployment experience, namely differences in quality of schooling and in age-grade retardation.

From a policy point of view there are two other notable findings. First, several hundred thousand youth who experienced two or more spells of unemployment received no occupational training during the period. Second, completion of secondary school appears to be a crucial threshold for diminishing the susceptibility to unemployment. There may be significance, in this context, to the fact that among young men with high scores on our occupational information test the effect of high

Table 3.12 Mean Weeks Unemployed and Mean Weeks per Spell of Unemployment Experienced by Out-of-School Youth between the 1966 and 1968 Surveys, by Selected Measures of Job Changing Experience during the Period and Color

Measure of job changing experience	WHITES			BLACKS		
	Total number (thousands)	Mean weeks unemployed 1966 to 1968	Mean weeks per spell ^a	Total number (thousands)	Mean weeks unemployed 1966 to 1968	Mean weeks per spell ^a
Comparison of job status ^b						
1966-1967-1968 surveys						
Same employer all 3 years	157	7.9	5.6	30	8.9	5.2
Same employer 2 consecutive years	331	7.2	4.9	89	9.3	5.9
Different employer all 3 years ^c	298	9.1	5.4	82	13.7	6.6
Total or average	786	8.4	5.2	201	11.1	6.1
Total number of interfirm shifts						
None	136	8.0	5.8	30	13.4	9.9
1	276	11.1	7.9	63	11.8	9.9
2	212	13.0	7.7	73	11.0	5.6
3	176	9.0	4.6	47	23.6	10.8
4 or more	187	13.6	5.9	73	15.4	4.9
Total or average	1,001	11.3	6.6	288	14.7	7.7

a Means computed from grouped data.

b Includes only youth employed at all three survey dates.

c Includes some youths with the same employer in 1966 and 1968 but with a different employer in 1967.

school graduation is not as pronounced as among those with low or medium scores. However, it is not clear at this point to what extent the test scores reflect other factors (e.g., intelligence, years of labor market experience) which probably influence susceptibility to unemployment.

As was expected, the cumulative duration of joblessness during the period is related positively to the number of spells, and negatively to age and education. The previously noted pervasive intercolor difference in the repeated incidence of unemployment is mitigated somewhat by a less consistent difference in average duration per spell of unemployment. Finally, the data indicate that among youth with fewer than 12 years of schooling, mean weeks unemployed per spell is negatively associated with the score on the test of occupational knowledge, i.e., that increased labor market information considerably improves the efficiency of job search.



CHANGES IN JOB STATUS OF EMPLOYED OUT-OF-SCHOOL YOUTH

Previous chapters have examined the changes that have occurred during the first two years of our longitudinal study in the school enrollment status of the young men, in the educational aspirations of those in school, and in the labor force and employment status of the nonstudents. In this chapter we focus exclusively on the work records of the subset of young men who have been out of school and employed at each of the three survey dates.

One expects considerable flux in the jobs held by young men in this age group. The early years in the labor market are known to be years of experimentation in which many false starts are made. They are also years in which the absence of substantial equities in jobs and of family responsibilities for large numbers of youth create an above-average level of mobility for the age group as a whole. Finally, the short tenure that most youth of this age have in their jobs makes them vulnerable to layoff, so that job changing frequently occurs quite involuntarily. Even without changing employers, young men may experience changes in occupational assignment within a firm or changes in level of responsibility within a particular occupational assignment. The latter changes may be reflected in improvements in rate of pay and in level of job satisfaction even where there is no formal change of job.

These, then, are the dynamics of the employment situation which are the subjects of investigation in the present chapter: movement among jobs (i.e., from one employer to another); changes in occupational assignment, either within a firm or accompanying an interfirm change; changes in rate of pay; and changes in attitude toward job. The next section examines the change in hourly earnings between 1966 and 1968 of those youth employed in both years as wage and salary workers. Section II deals with interfirm movement of the young men: (1) the quantity of such movement; (2) the characteristics associated with variations in its incidence; and (3) comparison of the changers and the nonchangers from the standpoint of the amount of training received, extent of improvement in rate of pay, and degree of change in job satisfaction. Section III treats the extent and nature of occupational change over the two-year period. Section IV is devoted to a discussion of the extent of migration among the young men and the characteristics that appear to be associated with such geographic movement. The final section briefly summarizes the findings.

* This chapter was written by Herbert S. Parnes.

I CHANGES IN RATE OF PAY, 1966-1968

The average white youth who was not enrolled in school in 1966 or 1968 and who was employed as a wage or salary earner in both years increased his hourly earnings between the dates of the two surveys by \$.66 or 27 percent (Table 4.1). For black youth the absolute increase was virtually identical (\$.65), but because of their lower earnings relative to whites in 1966 this represented a larger relative increase--37 percent. These advances in rates of pay, of course, are substantially in excess of those which occurred during the same period for the total employed labor force, since this age category of youth is on a steeply rising portion of the age-earnings curve.¹

Variation According to Occupation and Color

There is considerable variation in the rate of improvement in hourly earnings among the major occupation categories. White youth in the three white-collar categories and in the craftsmen, foremen, and kindred worker group register the highest rates of increase. The percentage change in the average hourly earnings in these four categories ranges between 30 and 35 percent. At the other extreme, service workers show an increase of only 13 percent, while for operatives the increase is 19 percent and for nonfarm laborers it is 24 percent. In the case of the black youth, the highest gains are among craftsmen (56 percent) and professional workers (42 percent) while the lowest gain is registered by clerical and sales workers (23 percent). All of the other categories show increases in average hourly earnings between 32 percent and 39 percent.²

Despite the larger percentage rates of increase for black youth than for white, average hourly earnings of the whites continue to exceed those of the blacks in 1968 in every occupational category. Overall, the differential in favor of the whites was 28 percent in 1968, a decline of 9 percentage points from 1966.³ The relative differential also declined

1 By way of a rough comparison, it may be noted that average hourly earnings of production workers in manufacturing industries increased by 11.3 percent between October 1966 and October 1968 (Monthly Labor Review, December 1966 and January 1969, Tables C-1), while for blue-collar workers in our sample the increase was 25 percent for whites and 39 percent for blacks.

2 These data are based on the occupational assignment of the respondents in the 1968 survey. Since over a third of the white youth under consideration and about half of the black youth had changed occupations across major occupation group boundaries between 1966 and 1968, the data should not be interpreted as representing wage change within occupational categories. Appendix Tables 4A-1 and 4A-2 present the data for those respondents who were in the same major occupation group in 1966 and 1968 and for those who were not, respectively.

3 See footnote 2, above.

Table 4.1 Selected Measures of Change in Rate of Pay between 1966 and 1968 Surveys for Employed Out-of-School Youth^a by Occupation of 1968 Job and Color

Major occupation group, 1968 job	Total number (thousands)	Mean rate of pay, 1966	Mean rate of pay, 1968	Absolute change, 1966 to 1968	Percentage change 1966 to 1968	Percent with decrease in money rate of pay	Percent with decrease in real rate of pay ^b
WHITES							
White-collar	1,028	\$2.50	\$3.33	\$0.83	+33	9.2	16.6
Professional, technical	363	2.70	3.51	0.81	+30	11.7	15.5
Nonfarm managers, proprietors	256	2.50	3.36	0.86	+34	13.6	15.1
Clerical, sales	409	2.31	3.12	0.81	+35	3.8	19.0
Blue-collar	2,195	2.47	3.09	0.62	+25	15.7	23.8
Craftsmen, foremen	800	2.50	3.34	0.84	+34	12.6	17.9
Operatives	1,136	2.52	3.01	0.49	+19	19.0	27.9
Nonfarm laborers	259	2.15	2.67	0.52	+24	10.7	23.7
Service	115	2.35	2.66	0.31	+13	30.0	37.7
Farm	73	c	c	c	c	c	c
Total or average	3,416	2.45	3.11	0.66	+27	14.6	22.5
BLACKS							
White-collar	99	\$2.06	\$2.72	\$0.66	+32	15.1	22.8
Professional, technical	28	2.39	3.40	1.01	+42	22.8	22.8
Nonfarm managers, proprietors	8	c	c	c	c	c	c
Clerical, sales	63	2.05	2.52	0.47	+23	13.5	25.6
Blue-collar	401	1.76	2.42	0.66	+38	7.8	16.8
Craftsmen, foremen	70	1.74	2.72	0.98	+56	2.3	10.7
Operatives	202	1.82	2.41	0.59	+32	7.6	18.2
Nonfarm laborers	128	1.68	2.26	0.58	+34	10.7	18.1
Service	59	1.77	2.34	0.57	+32	8.8	24.9
Farm	30	0.77	1.07	0.30	+39	4.9	4.9
Total or average	588	1.79	2.43	0.65	+37	9.2	18.4

a Unless otherwise noted, tables in Section I and the Appendix Tables of this chapter refer to youth 16 to 26 years of age who were not enrolled in school in 1966 and 1968 and were employed as wage and salary workers in 1966 and 1968 survey weeks.

b Percent whose rate of pay in 1968 was less than 7.3 percent greater than that of 1966. This was the percentage by which the Consumer Price Index increased between October 1966 and October 1968.

c Not shown where base represents fewer than 25 sample cases.

within each occupational category except the clerical and sales group, where it increased from 13 percent to 24 percent. It is noteworthy that near equality was achieved in the professional and technical category, where the white-black ratio declined from 113 percent in 1966 to 103 percent in 1968. Among the blue-collar workers the decline in the differential was greatest in the case of the craftsmen (from 144 percent to 123 percent), next in the case of the operatives (from 138 to 125 percent), and least in the case of laborers (from 128 percent to 118 percent). In the service worker category the differential declined from 133 percent in 1966 to 114 percent in 1968.

Variation According to Level of Education

There is less variation in the rate of earnings increase between 1966 and 1968 according to years of schooling than there is according to occupational affiliation (Table 4.2). In the case of both whites and blacks, all categories of respondents according to educational attainment show substantially the same rate of increase in average hourly earnings except those with exactly 12 years of schooling, for whom the rate is below average. In the case of whites, this category experienced a 24 percent increase in average hourly earnings in contrast to 29 or 30 percent among those with either more or less education. Among blacks, the high school graduates had an earnings increase of 32 percent as opposed to 36 percent for those with less than high school education and 37 percent for those with some college. We have been unable to think of a plausible explanation for these relationships.

So far as intercolor differentials in rate of pay are concerned, the same trend over the two-year period is discernible in these data as has already been observed in the occupational earnings rates. That is, while earnings rates for blacks remain below those for whites in every educational category in which there are sufficient sample cases for reliable estimates, the differential in 1968 is smaller than that in 1966. For those with between 13 and 15 years of schooling, the relative differential in favor of the whites is only 7 percent in 1968, having dropped from 14 percent in 1966. It is also noteworthy that both in 1966 and 1968 the intercolor differential in average hourly earnings declines as educational attainment increases.

Variation According to High School Curriculum

The relationship between the curriculum a student pursued in high school and his subsequent earnings can best be investigated among those with exactly 12 years of schooling, since educational attainment obviously must be controlled in the analysis and this is the only educational category in which there are sufficient sample cases in the several curricula for reliable estimates. Several interesting generalizations emerge from the data in Table 4.3. For one thing, the average hourly earnings of the graduates of vocational curricula were substantially higher both in 1966 and in 1968 than those of respondents who graduated from other curricula. The \$2.77 which the average white vocational

Table 4.2 Selected Measures of Change in Rate of Pay between 1966 and 1968 Surveys for Employed Out-of-School Youth, by Highest Year of School Completed and Color

Highest year of school completed ^a	Total number (thousands)	Mean rate of pay, 1966	Mean rate of pay, 1968	Absolute change, 1966 to 1968	Percentage change, 1966 to 1968	Percent with decrease in money rate of pay	Percent with decrease in real rate of pay ^b
WHITES							
Less than 12	758	\$2.31	\$2.98	\$0.67	+29	11.5	20.7
12	1,635	2.56	3.18	0.62	+24	16.5	24.4
13-15	366	2.55	3.30	0.75	+29	13.9	21.2
16 or more	241	3.05	3.96	0.91	+30	11.6	13.3
Total or average	3,000	2.53	3.21	0.68	+27	14.5	22.2
BLACKS							
Less than 12	159	\$1.65	\$2.24	\$0.59	+36	13.6	20.3
12	237	1.99	2.62	0.63	+32	5.7	15.1
13-15	33	2.24	3.07	0.83	+37	2.9	17.8
16 or more	11	^c	^c	^c	^c	^c	^c
Total or average	441	1.91	2.56	0.65	+34	8.1	16.7

^a Excludes respondents who never attended high school.

^b Percent whose rate of pay in 1968 was less than 7.3 percent greater than that of 1966. This was the percentage by which the Consumer Price Index increased between October 1966 and October 1968.

^c Not shown where base represents fewer than 25 sample cases.

Table 4.3 Selected Measures of Change in Rate of Pay between 1966 and 1968 Surveys for Employed Out-of-School Youth Who Have Competed Exactly 12 Years of School, by High School Curriculum and Color

High school curriculum	Total number (thousands)	Mean rate of pay, 1966	Mean rate of pay, 1968	Absolute change, 1966 to 1968	Percentage change, 1966 to 1968	Percent with decrease in money rate of pay	Percent with decrease in real rate of pay ^a
WHITES							
Vocational	259	\$2.77	\$3.61	\$0.84	+30	17.4	23.2
Commercial	100	2.32	3.03	0.71	+31	5.6	10.1
College preparatory	263	2.39	3.25	0.86	+36	10.8	15.6
General	979	2.56	3.08	0.52	+20	18.6	28.1
Total or average	1,635	2.56	3.18	0.62	+24	16.5	24.4
BLACKS							
Vocational	45	\$2.19	\$2.68	\$0.49	+22	18.1	18.1
Commercial	5	b	b	b	b	b	b
College preparatory	19	b	b	b	b	b	b
General	157	1.93	2.64	0.71	+37	1.7	11.0
Total or average	237	1.99	2.62	0.63	+32	5.7	15.1

a Percent whose rate of pay in 1968 was less than 7.3 percent greater than that of 1966. This was the percentage by which the Consumer Price Index increased between October 1966 and October 1968.

b Not shown where base represents fewer than 25 sample cases.

graduate earned per hour in 1966 was 8 percent higher than the average hourly earnings of all of the white high school graduates and higher than the earnings of those from each of the other three curricula by amounts which range between 8 and 19 percent.

Second, between 1966 and 1968 there were substantial differences in the rate of increase in average hourly earnings among the white graduates of the several curricula. Those from vocational and commercial curricula had substantially the same rate of increase (about 30 percent) but those from the college preparatory curriculum experienced an increase of 36 percent and those from the general curriculum an increase of 20 percent. As a consequence, the differential that had existed in 1966 between the vocational and college preparatory graduates narrowed from 16 percent to 11 percent⁴ and the 1966 differential between the college preparatory and the general graduates in favor of the latter was reversed by 1968. It is worth mentioning that among those with 13 to 15 years of schooling, also, the earnings of those who had been in college preparatory programs in high school increased faster between 1966 and 1968 than the earnings of those who had been in general programs. Whether these relationships will hold up over time remains to be seen. If they do, the explanation may lie in the fact that the education provided in the college preparatory curriculum provides a better basis for long term progress in the labor market than that afforded by other programs. Alternatively, it may be that those who go through the college preparatory program have native endowments superior to those enrolled in the other curricula and that it is this factor which accounts for the steeper slope of their age-earnings curve.

II INTERFIRM MOVEMENT

The Extent of Interfirm Movement

The very substantial amount of job changing among young men in their late teens and early twenties is indicated by the work records of those who were out of school and employed at the survey dates in 1966, 1967, and 1968 (Table 4.4). Not quite half of this group were employed in the same firm (or self-employment status) in the survey weeks of all three years. About a fifth had different employers at each of the three dates.

Total number of interfirm shifts, 1966-1968 The extent of job changing during the two-year period under consideration is, of course, seriously understated by a measure of the number of persons who are in different jobs at the three survey dates. For one thing, such a measure

⁴ A comparable finding is reported by Hu, Lee, and Stromsdorfer in "Economic Returns to Vocational and Comprehensive High School Graduates," Journal of Human Resources, Winter 1971, p. 34.

Table 4.4 Comparative Job Status 1966 through 1968 for Employed Out-of-School Youth^a, by Number of Interfirm Shifts between 1966 and 1968 Surveys and Color

(Percentage distribution)

Number of interfirm shifts	Same employer all 3 years	Same employer 2 consecutive years	Different employer all 3 years ^b	Total or average
WHITES				
None	90	0	0	45
1	3	72	0	25
2	5	13	46	15
3	1	7	28	8
4 or more	0*	8	25	7
Total percent	100	100	100	100
Total number (thousands)	1,774	1,106	625	3,574
BLACKS				
None	89	0	0	32
1	2	57	0	22
2	7	28	37	24
3	1	7	33	11
4 or more	1	8	30	11
Total percent	100	100	100	100
Total number (thousands)	190	196	145	560

* Percentage is 0.1 to 0.5.

a Unless otherwise noted, Tables in Sections II and III of this chapter refer to youth 16 to 26 years of age who were employed and not enrolled in school at the time of the 1966, 1967, and 1968 surveys.

b Includes some youths with the same employer in 1966 and 1968 but with a different employer in 1967.

ignores the possibility of multiple shifts by a single individual within the period of a year. Moreover, the measure not only understates the number of job changes, but also somewhat understates the number of job changers, since it does not include those who leave the job they held at the beginning of a period but then return to the original employer before the end of the period.

On the basis of a count of all changes of employer during the two-year period, 55 percent of the whites and two-thirds of the blacks had made at least one job shift (Table 4.4). Thus, compared with the measure based on position at the time of the surveys, this measure of "mobile" workers produces a count that is about 12 percent higher in the case of whites and 6 percent higher in the case of the blacks.

Three or more shifts were made by as many as 15 percent of the whites and 22 percent of the blacks. It is interesting that even among those who had been with the same employer on each of three survey dates, about one-tenth had made at least one change of employer during the two-year period (10 percent of the whites and 11 percent of the blacks). Those who were with a different employer at each of the three survey dates would have had, of course, a minimum of two job shifts. Yet, over half of the whites in this category and almost two-thirds of the blacks had made three or more moves.

Correlates of Interfirm Movement

Returning now to our measure of interfirm movement based upon the respondent's position at the time of each of the three surveys, we examine the factors which appear to be related to the likelihood that a young man will change employers over a two-year period.

Education and occupation There are rather pronounced variations in the extent of job changing according to education and occupation. Young men with less than a high school education are much more likely to have changed employers at least once over the two-year period than those with more education. By and large, the extent of movement over the two-year period is inversely related to the socioeconomic level of the occupational category in which the youth was employed in 1966. Among white youth in professional and technical occupations, for example, two-thirds remained with the same employer during the period, while the corresponding proportion among laborers was only about half as great. However, craftsmen and foremen, it should be noted, had slightly greater rates of movement than operatives. Although our data do not permit us to differentiate between voluntary and involuntary movement over this two-year time period,⁵ it seems likely that much of the difference in

5 This serious limitation arises because of an unfortunate error in the "skip pattern" in the interview schedule. In the fourth survey an attempt has been made to ascertain retrospectively the reasons for job changes that had occurred up to that time.

the incidence of job changing among educational and occupational categories is attributable to the higher rates of involuntary separation among those near the bottom of the occupational hierarchy.

Degree of job attachment in 1966 In the initial survey young men who were then employed were asked what rate of pay would induce them to take a job doing similar work with a different employer in the local labor market area. Responses were coded in relation to the rates of pay they were then earning and were used to group the respondents into three categories: "highly mobile" (those willing to take another job for a wage increase of less than 10 percent); "moderately mobile" (those willing to take the job at a specified wage increase of 10 percent or more); and "immobile" (those unwilling to take another job at any conceivable wage increase).⁶ This measure of prospective mobility turns out to have predictive value with respect to actual job movement, at least in the case of whites (Table 4.5). Of those classified as highly mobile, 57 percent have left their 1966 employer in contrast with only 52 percent of those who were moderately mobile and 42 percent of those classified as immobile. Indeed, 21 percent of the highly mobile but only 14 percent of the immobile were in different jobs at each of the three survey dates. Among black youth the relationship is by no means regular, perhaps reflecting a greater incidence of involuntary separation among the blacks than among whites.

Length of service in 1966 job One of the axioms of labor market behavior is that the probability of both voluntary and involuntary job separation declines substantially as length of service in a job increases. In the case of involuntary separations, the passage of the probationary period makes discharge less likely and the accumulation of seniority provides protection against layoff. With respect to voluntary separations, greater seniority makes the job more secure (and therefore more attractive) relative to others; and social and psychological ties to the job are created and strengthened as length of service increases. These relationships are clearly discernible in Table 4.6. The proportion of the young men employed in the same firm at each of the three survey dates is almost twice as great among those who had three or more years of service with their 1966 employers as among those who had served less than a year with those employers. On the other hand, the long-service group was only about one-third as likely as the short-service group to have been employed in three different firms at the three survey dates. The pattern is equally pronounced among both blacks and whites.

Color There are clear and consistent differences between white and black youth in the extent of movement among jobs over a two-year period. Overall, 51 percent of the whites, but only 36 percent of the blacks, were with the same employer at all three survey dates. To some extent this difference reflects intercolor differences in educational attainment and occupational affiliation. Nevertheless, even with these variables controlled, the black youth were more likely to change jobs than their white counterparts (Table 4.5). For example, among the young men who completed exactly 12 years of school, the proportion of blacks who

6 Parnes, et al., Career Thresholds, Vol. I, pp. 149-59.

Table 4.5 Comparative Job Status 1966 through 1968 for Employed
Out-of-School Youth, by Selected Characteristics

(Percentage distributions)

Characteristic	Same employer all 3 years	Same employer 2 consecutive years	Different employer all 3 years ^a	Total percent	Total number (thousands)
WHITES					
All respondents	51	32	18	100	3,574
<u>Highest year of school completed</u>					
Less than 12	40	32	27	100	1,233
12	57	30	13	100	1,765
13-15	52	34	14	100	353
16 or more	50	41	9	100	223
<u>Major occupation group, 1966</u>					
Professional, technical	67	27	6	100	328
Other white-collar	55	32	13	100	618
Craftsmen, foremen	46	33	21	100	862
Operatives	48	34	18	100	1,158
Nonfarm laborers	33	27	39	100	292
Service, farm	61	25	14	100	316
<u>Prospective mobility, 1966^b</u>					
Highly mobile	43	36	21	100	970
Moderately mobile	48	33	19	100	1,591
Immobile	58	29	14	100	529
Total or average	49	32	18	100	3,360
BLACKS					
All respondents	36	37	27	100	560
<u>Highest year of school completed</u>					
Less than 12	33	34	33	100	298
12	39	40	22	100	224
13-15	36	38	27	100	32
16 or more	c	c	c		7
<u>Major occupation group, 1966</u>					
Professional, technical	c	c	c		12
Other white-collar	18	48	34	100	43
Craftsmen, foremen	25	48	26	100	79
Operatives	47	32	22	100	202
Nonfarm laborers	33	22	44	100	89
Service, farm	28	46	25	100	135
<u>Prospective mobility, 1966^b</u>					
Highly mobile	40	36	24	100	113
Moderately mobile	34	38	28	100	334
Immobile	45	32	23	100	49
Total or average	37	36	27	100	547

a Includes some youths with the same employer in 1966 and 1968 but with a different employer in 1967.

b Based on response to the question, asked only of wage and salary workers, "Suppose someone in this area offered you a job in the same line of work you're in now. How much would the new job have to pay for you to be willing to take it?" The categories are defined as follows: Highly mobile: would accept job for less than 10 percent increase in pay; Moderately mobile: would accept job for 10 percent increase or more; Immobile: would not accept job at any wage rate.

c Percentage not shown where the base represents fewer than 25 sample cases.

remained with the same employer is almost 20 percentage points below that of the whites and the proportion who served with different employers all three years is 9 percentage points higher than that of whites. Corresponding differences prevail in every educational and occupational category in which sample sizes permit confident comparisons, although in the case of operatives the differences are hardly perceptible and certainly not statistically significant. It is interesting that within each of the three mobility categories based upon responses to the hypothetical job offer in the 1966 survey black youth registered more actual movement than white youth. Thus, while 42 percent of the "immobile" whites had changed employers, the corresponding proportion among the blacks was 55 percent. Moreover, within each length of service category black youth show higher rates of movement than their white counterparts (Table 4.6).

It is noteworthy that no such intercolor difference in rate of job changing prevailed between 1966 and 1967 in the case of middle-aged men. Between the first and second surveys of the older cohort, 10.6 percent of the whites and 10.4 percent of the blacks had made a change of employer and the rates for voluntary and involuntary movement were also quite similar for the two color groups.⁷ At this juncture, we do not know to what extent, if at all, the intercolor difference in the case of the young men is attributable to a greater susceptibility of black youth to layoff. Because of the weaker job attachments of the blacks that were measured in the initial survey,⁸ we are inclined to believe that the higher rates of movement of the black youth compared with their white counterparts reflect greater rates of both voluntary and involuntary movement. This is a hypothesis we will be able to test on the basis of subsequent surveys which will permit us to differentiate between the two types of job change.

The Consequences of Interfirm Movement

Occupational training It is clear that the process of interfirm movement occasions a considerable amount of training (Table 4.7). Those who were with the same employer on all three survey dates were less likely to have experienced some training between 1966 and 1968 than those who had changed employers.⁹ Overall, exactly a third of the whites and about a

7 Herbert S. Parnes, Karl Egge, Andrew I. Kohen, and Ronald M. Schmidt, The Pre-Retirement Years: A Longitudinal Study of Labor Market Experience of Men, Vol. II (Columbus: The Ohio State University, Center for Human Resource Research, 1970), p. 23. Rates of voluntary movement were 6.1 percent and 5.6 percent for whites and blacks, respectively, while rates of involuntary movement were 4.5 and 4.8 percent.

8 Parnes, et al., Career Thresholds, Vol. I, pp. 152-53.

9 Of course, training may occur prior to a job change and thus facilitate the change of jobs, rather than being a result thereof. We are inclined to believe, however, that in the present data the direction of causation is more frequently the reverse.

Table 4.6 Comparative Job Status 1966 through 1968 for Employed Out-of-School Youth, by Length of Service in 1966 Job and Color

(Percentage distribution)

Comparative job status	Less than 1 year	1-2 years	3 or more years	Total or average
WHITES				
Same employer all 3 years	38	59	66	51
Same employer 2 consecutive years	36	28	26	32
Different employer all 3 years ^a	26	13	8	18
Total percent	100	100	100	100
Total number (thousands)	1,631	1,229	698	3,574
BLACKS				
Same employer all 3 years	26	41	55	36
Same employer 2 consecutive years	40	35	32	37
Different employer all 3 years ^a	34	24	13	27
Total percent	100	100	100	100
Total number (thousands)	282	168	106	560

a Includes some youths with the same employer in 1966 and 1968 but with a different employer in 1967.

Table 4.7 Proportion of Employed Out-of-School Youth Who Received Occupational Training since 1966 Survey, by Comparative Job Status 1966 through 1968, Highest Year of School Completed, and Color

Comparative job status	Less than 12 years		12 years		Total or average ^a	
	Total number (thousands)	Percent with training	Total number (thousands)	Percent with training	Total number (thousands)	Percent with training
WHITES						
Same employer all 3 years	484	21	996	34	1,774	32
Same employer 2 consecutive years	384	21	515	45	1,106	38
Different employer all 3 years ^b	328	22	228	39	625	30
Total or average	1,233	21	1,765	38	3,574	33
BLACKS						
Same employer all 3 years	90	8	85	21	190	18
Same employer 2 consecutive years	94	10	87	33	196	24
Different employer all 3 years ^b	89	16	47	29	145	21
Total or average	298	11	224	28	560	21

a Includes youths with more than 12 years of education.

b Includes some youths with the same employer in 1966 and 1968 but with a different employer in 1967.

fifth (21 percent) of the blacks had some training during the period. For the whites, this proportion was 32 percent among those who had not changed employers and 35 percent among those who had. The difference is concentrated, however, among that subset of white youth who had terminated their education with a high school diploma (34 percent versus 43 percent). Among the blacks, the overall difference is greater than in the case of the whites (18 percent versus 23 percent), and it prevails in every educational category. In both color groups, it should be noted, training is somewhat less likely among those who were with different employers in all three years than among those who changed employers only once. While we cannot be certain, it appears likely that the reason lies in the fact that the most mobile group includes disproportionately large numbers of persons in unskilled occupations for which training is uncommon.

Rate of pay In interpreting the relationship between interfirm movement and changes in rate of pay between 1966 and 1968, it must be kept in mind that the interfirm changes under consideration include involuntary as well as voluntary shifts. Two generalizations emerge from an examination of the data in Table 4.8. First, there is a clear relationship between rate of pay in 1966 on the one hand and the likelihood of an employer change between 1966 and 1968. Among both color groups, in every occupational category for which there are sufficient sample cases for confident generalization, the 1966 rate of pay is higher for those who served with the same employer at all three survey dates than for those who served with two or with three employers. This finding is consistent with the observed relationships between length of service and the likelihood of an interfirm shift, since there is a positive relationship between length of service in a job and rate of pay. Moreover, even holding length of service constant, persons at the bottom of the wage structure have both greater incentives for making voluntary job changes and a greater likelihood of finding a higher paying job.

The second generalization is that, by and large, those who made an employer change over the three-year period enjoyed a larger improvement in the rate of pay than those who remained with the same employer, although the situation is not nearly so clear for those who were serving with different employers in all three survey weeks. To illustrate with respect to white youth in all occupational categories combined, those who served with the same employer at all three survey dates experienced an increase in rate of pay per hour of 25 percent between October 1966 and October 1968. Those who were with different employers in two of the three survey dates enjoyed an increase of 34 percent, but those who were with different firms in all three years had an average increase of only 22 percent.

Because both rates of pay and rates and types of interfirm movement are correlated with occupational category, it is preferable to examine the foregoing relationships within each major occupation group. When one does this for the white youth it is clear that within every major occupational category the percentage increase in rate of pay is greater for those who served with two employers than for those who remained with the same

Table 4.8 Absolute and Percentage Difference in Mean Rate of Pay 1966 and 1968 for Employed Out-of-School Youth, by Comparative Job Status 1966 through 1968 and Color:
Youth Employed as Wage and Salary Workers in 1966 and 1968

Major occupation group, 1966, and comparative job status, 1966, 1967, and 1968	Total number (thousands)	Mean rate of pay, 1966	Mean rate of pay, 1968	Absolute change, 1966 to 1968	Percentage change, 1966 to 1968
WHITES					
Professional, technical	315	\$2.84	\$3.63	\$0.79	+28
Same employer all 3 years	207	2.87	3.51	0.64	+22
Same employer 2 consecutive years	88	c	c	c	c
Different employer all 3 years ^a	20	c	c	c	c
Other white-collar	568	2.40	3.26	0.86	+36
Same employer all 3 years	319	2.47	3.33	0.86	+35
Same employer 2 consecutive years	179	2.40	3.27	0.87	+36
Different employer all 3 years ^a	70	c	c	c	c
Craftsmen, foremen	811	2.58	3.32	0.74	+29
Same employer all 3 years	364	2.71	3.36	0.65	+24
Same employer 2 consecutive years	272	2.51	3.47	0.96	+38
Different employer all 3 years ^a	174	2.47	3.01	0.54	+22
Operatives	1,134	2.47	2.99	0.52	+21
Same employer all 3 years	544	2.68	3.19	0.51	+19
Same employer 2 consecutive years	381	2.27	2.76	0.49	+22
Different employer all 3 years ^a	200	2.32	2.87	0.55	+24
Total or average ^b	3,327	2.46	3.12	0.66	+27
Same employer all 3 years	1,663	2.60	3.25	0.65	+25
Same employer 2 consecutive years	993	2.31	3.10	0.79	+34
Different employer all 3 years ^a	596	2.34	2.85	0.51	+22
BLACKS					
White-collar	53	\$2.02	\$2.92	\$0.90	+45
Same employer all 3 years	18	c	c	c	c
Same employer 2 consecutive years	23	c	c	c	c
Different employer all 3 years ^a	14	c	c	c	c
Craftsmen, foremen	71	1.88	2.51	0.63	+34
Same employer all 3 years	18	c	c	c	c
Same employer 2 consecutive years	35	2.17	3.09	0.92	+42
Different employer all 3 years ^a	18	c	c	c	c
Operatives	193	1.88	2.38	0.50	+26
Same employer all 3 years	90	1.95	2.34	0.39	+20
Same employer 2 consecutive years	61	1.86	2.42	0.56	+30
Different employer all 3 years ^a	42	1.69	2.41	0.72	+43
Total or average ^b	559	1.79	2.43	0.64	+36
Same employer all 3 years	196	1.89	2.46	0.57	+30
Same employer 2 consecutive years	193	1.85	2.58	0.73	+39
Different employer all 3 years ^a	141	1.55	2.23	0.68	+44

a Includes some youths with the same employer in 1966 and 1968, but with a different employer in 1967.

b Includes nonfarm laborers, service workers, and farm workers, not shown separately.

c Not shown where base represents fewer than 25 sample cases.

employer in all three years. For the most mobile group (those with different employers in all three years) it is difficult to generalize because most of the occupational categories have too few observations for reliable estimates. In the largest occupational category (operatives), those with three employers did slightly better than those with two (increase of 24 percent versus 22 percent, respectively). In the case of craftsmen, on the other hand, those who were in different jobs in all three years fared substantially less well than those with only two employers and, indeed, slightly less well than those employed with the same employer in all three years. The increases in rate of pay for these three groups were 22 percent, 38 percent, and 24 percent, respectively.

Among the black youth the relationships are considerably more regular for the three occupational categories in which there are sufficient sample cases for reliable estimates--operatives, nonfarm laborers, and service and farm workers.¹⁰ In all three of these categories, the largest improvements in rate of pay were experienced by those who were employed in three different firms at the three survey dates, and the smallest increases were experienced by those who remained with the same employer, although the differences in the case of nonfarm laborers were quite small. Among the operatives, who account for almost two-fifths of the blacks, the relationship is pronounced. Those remaining with the same employer experienced an average improvement in rate of pay of 20 percent over the two-year period, those with two employers had an average increase of 30 percent, and those with three an average increase of 43 percent.

Since those who changed employers during the two-year period started from a lower base, their greater improvement in average hourly earnings does not necessarily mean that they ended with higher wage rates than those who remained with the same employer. Nevertheless, this is precisely what occurred in several of the occupational categories. For example, in the case of black operatives those who served with two different employers enjoyed an eight-cent-per-hour advantage in 1968 over those who had remained with the same employer, and those who had different employers in all three survey years experienced a seven-cent-per-hour advantage, despite the fact that on the basis of 1966 earnings these two groups had negative differentials of nine cents per hour and 26 cents per hour, respectively. Similarly, among white craftsmen, those who served with two different employers ended the period with an 11-cent-per-hour advantage over those who had stayed with the same employer, whereas at the beginning of the period there had been a 20-cent-per-hour differential in the opposite direction.

¹⁰ The nonfarm laborers and service workers are not shown separately in the table.

The foregoing relationships are particularly impressive in view of the fact that the data do not differentiate between voluntary and involuntary movement. They lend strong support to conventional labor market theory, which suggests that the movement of labor is in the direction of higher-paying, and thus more productive jobs. It should be acknowledged, however, that there are a priori reasons for believing that such market forces are more potent in the case of this age group of workers than for those who are older, since the mobility of the younger group is known to be considerably greater.

Job satisfaction Additional evidence that moves made by the young men over this two-year period were advantageous and that the movers fared better than those who did not move is provided by the attitudes expressed by respondents toward their jobs in 1966 and 1968 (Table 4.9). Among all respondents, a majority reported more favorable attitudes toward their jobs in 1968 than in 1966 (58 percent of the whites and 54 percent of the blacks). This fraction, however, was considerably greater among those who had changed employers than among those who had not. In the case of whites, for example, approximately seven out of ten of the changers liked their 1968 job more than their 1966 job in contrast to only 47 percent of the nonchangers. In the case of the blacks, over three-fifths of the changers liked their 1968 job better than the one they held in 1966, in contrast with less than two-fifths of the nonchangers. In this case, however, those who had served with three different employers were somewhat less likely to have experienced an increase in satisfaction than those who had served with only two (55 percent versus 69 percent).

While the job changers were more likely to increase their job satisfaction than the nonchangers, there is no substantial difference between the two categories in the likelihood of a decrease in satisfaction between the two years. Among whites 5 percent of the nonchangers and 8 percent of the changers indicated that they liked their jobs less in 1968 than in 1966. In the case of the blacks, there was virtually no difference between the two groups. About 11 percent of each reported less satisfaction in 1968 than in 1966.¹¹

¹¹ However, relatively more of the changers than of the nonchangers are classified in an ambiguous category so far as their relative job satisfaction in 1968 and 1966 is concerned. The variable comparing satisfaction in 1966 and 1968 was actually constructed on the basis of responses to questions in 1966, 1967, and 1968. In 1967 the respondent was asked to compare his satisfaction in 1967 versus 1966. In 1968 he was asked to make a similar comparison between 1968 and 1967. Some of the response patterns were intransitive and had, therefore, to be classified as "uncertain."

Table 4.9 Comparative Satisfaction with Job in 1966 and 1968 for Employed Out-of-School Youth, by Comparative Job Status 1966 through 1968 and Color

(Percentage distribution)

Comparative job satisfaction	Same employer all 3 years	Same employer 2 consecutive years	Different employer all 3 years ^a	Total or average
WHITES				
Likes 1968 job more	47	69	71	58
Likes 1968 job same	42	12	6	25
Likes 1968 job less	5	8	6	7
Uncertain	6	11	18	10
Total percent	100	100	100	100
Total number (thousands)	1,774	1,106	625	3,574
BLACKS				
Likes 1968 job more	38	69	55	54
Likes 1968 job same	49	18	13	28
Likes 1968 job less	11	8	14	11
Uncertain	2	5	18	7
Total percent	100	100	100	100
Total number (thousands)	190	196	145	560

a Includes some youths with the same employer in 1966 and 1968, but a different employer in 1967.

Occupational movement over the two-year period, defined as a change from one three-digit Census category to another, appears to have been even more pervasive than movement among employers. Based on job assignment in the survey weeks, 59 percent of the white youth who were out of school and employed at all three dates made at least one occupational shift during the period; the corresponding proportion of black youth is 69 percent (Table 4.10).¹²

12 The mobility rates reported here are high relative to those produced by the only other recent study based on a national sample. See Samuel Saben, Occupational Mobility of Employed Workers, Special Labor Force Report No. 84 (Washington, D.C.: U.S. Department of Labor, Bureau of Labor Statistics, June 1967). This BLS study reported that 29.0 percent of out-of-school males 20 to 24 years of age were in a different three-digit occupation in January 1966 from the one they held in January 1965. Between the first two surveys of our study (Autumn 1966 and Autumn 1967) the corresponding rate for out-of-school youth 21 to 25 years of age in 1967 was 37.5 percent. Most of the difference appears to exist in rates of intrafirm occupational movement. Although the specification of the universes varies slightly, both studies show a rate of interfirm occupational movement of about 25 percent, but the longitudinal study shows a rate of intrafirm occupational movement of about 13 percent in contrast to only 4 percent in the BLS study.

Aside from minor differences in time periods covered and in universe specification, there are two important differences between the BLS study and our longitudinal study that might be expected to produce higher measures of occupational mobility in the latter. First, the BLS study measured occupational movement on the basis of a retrospective comparison of status in 1966 and 1965. The longitudinal study, on the other hand, compares the occupation reported in 1967 with the occupation reported in 1966. There is evidence that retrospective comparison understates the "true" rate of mobility as the result of faulty recall. On the other hand, the comparison of occupations reported at two different times apparently overstates the "true" rate because of variation in the manner of reporting the occupation from one time period to the next or because of coding errors. (See U.S. Bureau of the Census, "Occupation and Industry Five-Year-Ago Item and Measurement of Occupational Mobility," mimeographed, September 15, 1967.) A second difference between the BLS study and the present one is that the former was based on CPS data in which the information is collected from one member of a household (generally the housewife) for all the members thereof, whereas in our study the data are reported by the youth himself. It seems reasonable to believe that a young man's wife or mother would be less sensitive than the youth himself to changes in occupational assignment--particularly those not accompanied by a change of employer.

Table 4.10 Comparative Job Status and Occupational Assignment
1966 through 1968 by Color

(Percentage distribution)

Comparative job status and occupational assignment ^a	WHITES	BLACKS
Same employer all 3 years	51	36
Same occupation all 3 years	34	24
All other	17	12
Same employer 2 consecutive years	32	37
Same occupation all 3 years	5	5
All other	27	32
Different employer all 3 years ^b	18	27
Same occupation all 3 years	3	2
Same occupation 2 of 3 years	6	9
Different occupation all 3 years	9	16
Total percent	100	100
Total number (thousands)	3,574	560

a Based on Census 3-digit code.

b Includes some youths employed with the same employer in 1966 and 1968 but with a different employer in 1967.

As might be expected, the likelihood of an occupational shift is considerably greater among those who changed employers than among those who were with the same employer at each survey date. Nevertheless, even among the latter the proportion is as high as one-third among both color groups, in contrast to over four-fifths among those who had made an employer change.

If we confine our attention to the two terminal years, about half of the whites (52 percent) and almost two-thirds of the blacks (63 percent) were in different three-digit occupational categories (Table 4.11). Based on the Duncan index of socioeconomic status, upward occupational moves outnumbered downward moves in both color groups,¹³ but the difference is substantially greater among whites than blacks. In the case of the whites, 52 percent of the occupational moves were upward and 27 percent were downward; among blacks the corresponding proportions were 38 percent and 33 percent.

The likelihood of an occupational shift is not independent of the occupational affiliation of the respondent in 1966 (Table 4.11). Among whites it was greatest among those who were nonfarm laborers in 1966 (66 percent) and lowest among professional and technical workers (34 percent). In the case of blacks, there was less variation among major occupation groups, although craftsmen and white-collar workers (excluding professional and technical) had higher-than-average rates.

Whether an occupation changer moved up or down the socioeconomic status hierarchy was also related to the position from which he started in his 1966 job (Table 4.11). Among whites, upward moves accounted for the largest proportion of the total in the case of nonfarm laborers (77 percent) and the lowest proportion (30 percent) in the case of professional and technical workers. Among blacks, upward moves were most common among nonfarm laborers and least common among craftsmen.

Occupation changes that accompanied interfirm shifts were slightly less likely to be upward moves than those that were made within the establishment in which the respondent was employed in 1966 (Table 4.12). Nevertheless, the fact that occupational change of any kind was far more prevalent among those who changed employers than among those who did not means that the interfirm movers were as a group much more likely to improve themselves occupationally than the nonmovers. For instance, among whites who were employed in the same firm at all three survey dates, 14 percent had moved up the occupational ladder between 1966 and 1968. This proportion, however, was 42 percent among those who had been employed by a different employer at one of the survey dates and 35 percent

¹³ An upward move is defined here as one in which the Duncan index of the 1968 occupational assignment exceeds that of 1966 by at least 5 points. A downward shift is defined analogously.

Table 4.11 Comparison of Occupation of 1966 and 1968 Jobs for Employed Out-of-School Youth, by Major Occupation Group of 1966 Job and Color

(Percentage distribution)

Comparison of occupational assignment, 1966 to 1968	Professional and technical	Other white-collar	Craftsmen and foremen	Operatives	Nonfarm laborers	Service and farm	Total or average
WHITES							
Same 3-digit occupation	66	42	51	43	34	61	48
Different 3-digit occupation	34	58	49	57	66	39	52
Duncan index of 1968 job higher by 5 points or more	10	29	22	29	50	20	27
Duncan index 1966 job = 1968 job + 4 points	5	4	9	17	14	13	11
Duncan index of 1968 job lower by 5 points or more	18	25	18	10	1	6	14
Total percent	100	100	100	100	100	100	100
Total number (thousands)	328	618	862	1,158	292	316	3,574
BLACKS							
Same 3-digit occupation		20	24	41	44	36	37
Different 3-digit occupation		80	76	59	56	64	63
Duncan index of 1968 job higher by 5 points or more	a	19	13	23	37	26	24
Duncan index 1966 job = 1968 job + 4 points		20	19	17	17	20	18
Duncan index of 1968 job lower by 5 points or more		41	44	19	1	19	21
Total percent		100	100	100	100	100	100
Total number (thousands)	12	43	79	202	89	135	560

a Percentage distribution not shown when based on fewer than 25 sample cases.

Table 4.12 Comparison of Job Status 1966 through 1968 for Employed Out-of-School Youth, by Comparison of Occupation of 1966 and 1968 Jobs, Selected Occupational Categories of 1966 Job, and Color
(Percentage distribution)

Selected occupation group of 1966 job and comparison of occupational assignment 1966 to 1968	WHITES			BLACKS				
	Same employer all 3 years	Same employer 2 consecutive years	Different employer all 3 years ^a	Total or average	Same employer all 3 years	Same employer 2 consecutive years	Different employer all 3 years ^a	Total or average
<u>Craftsmen</u>								
Same 3-digit occupation	82	26	30	51		7		24
Duncan index of 1968 job higher by 5+ points	12	32	28	22	b	9	b	13
Duncan index of 1966 job = 1968 job + 4 points	3	14	12	9		32		19
Duncan index of 1968 job lower by 5+ points	4	28	30	18		52		44
Total percent	100	100	100	100		100		100
Total number (thousands)	387	277	174	862	18	35	19	79
<u>Operatives</u>								
Same 3-digit occupation	68	18	25	43	71	14	25	41
Duncan index of 1968 job higher by 5+ points	18	46	26	29	10	42	30	23
Duncan index of 1966 job = 1968 job + 4 points	8	21	34	17	13	24	11	17
Duncan index of 1968 job lower by 5+ points	7	14	14	10	7	21	34	19
Total percent	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100
Total number (thousands)	553	390	205	1,158	90	61	42	202
<u>Total or average^c</u>								
Same 3-digit occupation	74	20	26	48	75	17	20	37
Duncan index of 1968 job higher by 5+ points	14	42	35	27	10	28	36	24
Duncan index of 1966 job = 1968 job + 4 points	4	16	18	11	9	28	16	18
Duncan index of 1968 job lower by 5+ points	7	22	21	14	6	28	27	21
Total percent	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100
Total number (thousands)	1,774	1,106	625	3,574	190	196	145	560

^a Includes some youths employed with the same employer in 1966 and 1968 but with a different employer in 1967.

^b Percentage distribution not shown where base represents fewer than 25 sample cases.

^c Includes other occupation categories not shown separately.

among those who had different employers at all three survey dates. The pattern is similar for the blacks and also holds within each color group in all of the occupational categories in which there are sufficient sample cases for confident generalization. Thus, the data on occupational changes support the earlier conclusion based on wage data that the interfirm movers improved their positions relative to those who remained with the same employers.

IV MIGRATION

In 1968, 20 percent of the white youth who were out of school and employed at all three survey dates lived in a different county from the one in which they had resided in 1966. The corresponding proportion for blacks was 13 percent (Table 4.13).

Factors Associated with Migration

The rate of migration varies substantially among occupational categories (Table 4.13). In the case of white youth it reaches 30 percent among professional and technical workers and 28 percent among nonfarm laborers. As would be expected, there is a pronounced relation between interfirm and interarea job movement. For example, among white youth who had different employers on all three survey dates, fully three-tenths had a different county of residence in 1968 from that of 1966. However, it is perhaps more interesting to note that interarea movement is by no means negligible even among those who do not change employers. Among white youth who were with the same employer on all three survey dates, 10 percent had nevertheless changed their county of residence between 1966 and 1968. These were apparently either cases of residential change unrelated to job change or cases of geographic transfer with the same company. The latter is probably particularly prominent among professional workers.

Rate of migration also bears a relationship with educational attainment (Table 4.14). In the case of both color groups the relationship is described by an essentially J-shaped curve. Youth with 13 or more years of education have the highest rates of migration. Among whites, there is no difference between those with less than 12 and those with exactly 12 years of schooling; among blacks the rate for high school dropouts is somewhat higher than for those with 12 years of schooling.

Among white youth the expected inverse relationship between length of service in 1966 job and the likelihood of migration between 1966 and 1968 prevails, but not among the blacks. For the entire group of whites, the migration rate declines monotonically from 26 percent for those who at the time of the 1966 survey had held their jobs for less than one year to 10 percent for those with three or more years of service. Another way of pointing up this difference is to note that among the white migrants the mean length of service in 1966 job was 0.8 years, compared with 1.3 years for all of the young men.

Table 4.13 Migration Rate 1966 to 1968, by Comparative Job Status 1966 through 1968, Major Occupation Group of 1966 Job, and Color: Youth 16 to 26 Years of Age in 1968 Employed and Not Enrolled in School in 1966, 1967, and 1968 Survey Weeks

Major occupation group, 1966	Same employer all 3 years		Same employer 2 consecutive years		Different employer all 3 years ^a		Total or average	
	Total number (thousands)	Migration rate ^b	Total number (thousands)	Migration rate ^b	Total number (thousands)	Migration rate ^b	Total number (thousands)	Migration rate ^b
WHITES								
Professional, technical	216	22	88	c	20	c	328	30
Other white-collar	335	7	199	38	77	c	618	22
Craftsmen, foremen	387	7	277	29	174	33	862	19
Operatives	553	8	390	24	205	22	1,158	16
Nonfarm laborers	91	c	75	c	108	43	292	28
Service and farm	192	13	76	c	42	c	316	15
Total or average	1,774	10	1,106	29	625	31	3,574	20
BLACKS								
Professional, technical	10	c	3	c	0	--	12	c
Other white-collar	8	c	20	c	14	c	43	8
Craftsmen, foremen	18	c	35	8	19	c	72	3
Operatives	90	4	61	28	42	16	202	16
Nonfarm laborers	28	0	19	c	38	20	89	9
Service and farm	36	0	59	24	32	21	135	16
Total or average	190	2	196	21	145	15	560	13

^a Includes some youths employed with the same employer in 1966 and 1968 but with a different employer in 1967.

^b Migration rate is the proportion of youths who reside in a different county or SMSA than in 1966.

^c Rate not shown when base represents fewer than 25 sample cases.

Table 4.14 Migration Rate 1966 to 1968, by Selected Characteristics: Youth 16 to 26 Years of Age in 1968 Who Were Employed and Not Enrolled in School in the 1966 Survey Week

Characteristic	WHITES		BLACKS	
	Total number (thousands)	Migration rate ^a	Total number (thousands)	Migration rate ^a
All respondents	4,008	20	688	13
<u>Highest year of school completed</u>				
Less than 12	1,438	18	393	14
12	1,921	18	257	10
13 or more	649	27	38	26
<u>Length of service, 1966 job</u>				
Less than 1 year	1,887	26	365	15
1 year, less than 2	830	18	131	8
2 years, less than 3	497	15	73	19
3 or more years	762	10	112	8
Mean length of service	1.3 years	0.8 years	0.9 years	0.9 years
<u>Weeks unemployed in 12 months prior to 1966 survey</u>				
Some	262	25	53	13
None	3,529	19	599	14
Mean number of weeks of unemployment	1.1	1.6	1.5	1.5
<u>Prospective geographic mobility, 1966^b</u>				
Highly mobile	481	20	45	20
Moderately mobile	1,603	19	335	15
Immobile	1,057	20	151	14
<u>Change in marital status, 1966-1968^c</u>				
Remained single	1,044	13	275	8
Married	658	28	101	24

a Migration rate is the proportion of youths who reside in a different county or SMSA than in 1966.

b See footnote b, Table 4.5. Prospective geographic mobility was measured in same way as prospective interfirm mobility, except that the hypothetical job was assumed to be outside the local labor market area. Includes only wage and salary workers in 1966.

c Data relate only to respondents who in 1966 were "never married."

There is clear evidence in Table 4.14 that unemployment is a stimulus to migration of white youth, although the same does not appear to be true for the black. Overall, the migration rate between 1966 and 1968 of those white youth who had experienced some unemployment in the 12 months prior to the 1966 survey was 25 percent in contrast to 19 percent among those with no unemployment. Expressed in another way, white migrants had, on the average, experienced 1.6 weeks of unemployment in the 12-month period prior to the 1966 interview, in contrast to the 1.1 weeks of unemployment experienced by the total group of whites. Although not shown in the table, the relationship between unemployment and migration prevails for white youth in all educational attainment categories. As has been indicated, however, the relationship does not prevail among black youth. Among them there is very little difference in the prior unemployment record of migrants and nonmigrants.

It is clear that both in the case of the whites and blacks, migration status is related to change in marital status. Focusing attention on youth who were nonmarried in 1966, those who married between then and 1968 were twice as likely to be living in a different county in the latter year as those who had not. The respective migration rates for the whites in these two categories were 28 percent and 13 percent, and for blacks, 24 percent and 8 percent.

It may be worth noting that a hypothetical question relating to a job offer outside the local labor market area that was asked in the 1966 interview did not perform at all well as a predictor of migration between 1966 and 1968. Among whites, migration rates were virtually identical among those who had been classified as "high mobile," "moderately mobile," and "immobile" on the basis of the 1966 question. Among blacks, there were differences in the expected direction, but they were hardly large enough to be statistically significant.

Change in Earnings and Job Satisfaction

There is no such strong relationship between migration status and change in average hourly earnings over the two-year period as has been observed between interfirm movement in general and rate of wage increase (Table 4.15). Controlling for education, the only groups for whom there are sufficient sample cases for reasonably confident statements are white and black youth with less than 12 years of schooling and white youth with exactly 12. In two of these cases the migrants fared better than the nonmigrants, but in the other (whites with 12 years of education) the relationship is reversed. Thus, there is no clear evidence in the data that migration produces the same relative advantage in wage increases as does interfirm movement.

On the other hand, although the numbers are not large enough to inspire substantial confidence, it appears that migrants are more likely than nonmigrants to have experienced an increase in job satisfaction between 1966 and 1968 (Table 4.16). Among whites, 66 percent of the migrants but only 56 percent of the nonmigrants reported liking their job better in 1968 than in 1966. Among blacks, the corresponding percentages were 64 and 53.

Table 4.15

Absolute and Percentage Difference in Mean Rate of Pay 1966 and 1968, by Highest Year of School Completed, Migration Status 1966 to 1968, and Color: Youth 16 to 26 Years of Age in 1968 Who Were Not Enrolled in School in 1966, 1967, and 1968, and Were Employed as Wage and Salary Workers in 1966 and/or 1968

Highest year of school completed and migration status	Total number (thousands) 1966	Mean rate of pay 1966	Mean rate of pay 1968	Absolute change 1966 to 1968	Percentage change 1966 to 1968
WHITES					
Less than 12 years					
Migrant ^a	255	\$2.03	\$2.62	\$0.59	+29
Nonmigrant	1,145	2.17	2.70	0.53	+24
Total or average	1,400	2.15	2.69	0.54	+25
12 years					
Migrant ^a	338	2.70	3.24	0.54	+20
Nonmigrant	1,435	2.48	3.16	0.68	+27
Total or average	1,774	2.52	3.18	0.66	+26
13 Years or more					
Migrant ^a	168	2.74	3.57	0.83	+30
Nonmigrant	451	2.99	3.60	0.61	+20
Total or average	619	2.92	3.59	0.67	+23
Total or average					
Migrant ^a	761	2.48	3.10	0.62	+25
Nonmigrant	3,032	2.44	3.06	0.62	+25
Total or average	3,793	2.45	3.07	0.62	+25
BLACKS					
Less than 12 years					
Migrant ^a	56	\$1.39	\$2.23	\$0.84	+60
Nonmigrant	325	1.54	2.00	0.46	+30
Total or average	380	1.52	2.04	0.52	+34
12 years					
Migrant ^a	27	2.54	2.63	0.09	+4
Nonmigrant	228	1.89	2.54	0.65	+34
Total or average	254	1.95	2.55	0.60	+31
13 years					
Migrant ^a	10	b	b	b	b
Nonmigrant	29	2.30	3.29	0.99	+43
Total or average	38	2.28	3.22	0.94	+41
Total or average					
Migrant ^a	92	1.85	2.43	0.58	+31
Nonmigrant	581	1.72	2.27	0.55	+32
Total or average	673	1.74	2.29	0.55	+32

^a Resides in different county or SMSA than in 1966.

^b Rates not shown where base represents fewer than 25 sample cases.

Table 4.16 Comparative Job Status 1966 through 1968 for Employed
Out-of-School Youth, by Length of Service in 1966 Job
and Color

(Percentage distribution)

Comparative job satisfaction, 1966 and 1968	Migrant ^a	Nonmigrant	Total or average
WHITES			
Likes 1968 job more	66	56	58
Likes 1968 job same	14	28	26
Likes 1968 job less	9	6	6
Uncertain	11	9	10
Total percent	100	100	100
Total number (thousands)	714	2,884	3,598
BLACKS			
Likes 1968 job more	64	53	54
Likes 1968 job same	22	29	28
Likes 1968 job less	10	11	11
Uncertain	4	8	7
Total percent	100	100	100
Total number (thousands)	73	494	567

a Resides in different county or SMSA in 1968 from that of 1966.

This chapter has examined the extent and the character of changes in job status over a two-year period on the part of young men whose education is, at least for the time being, behind them. In other words, the analysis has been confined to members of the sample who were not enrolled in school at the time of any of the first three surveys, which means that few of the young men discussed in this chapter are below 20 years of age; none, of course, can be over 26. Furthermore, most of the analysis in the chapter is based only on those who were employed at the time of all three surveys.

The amount of movement among firms and occupations is very great indeed for the youth under consideration. In the two-year period between the 1966 and the 1968 surveys, over half of the young men had made at least one change of employer either voluntarily or involuntarily and more than one in seven had made at least three such shifts. Occupational changes (defined as shifts from one three-digit occupational category to another) were even more numerous, having been made by about three-fifths of the youth. Changes of residence across county lines (or from one SMSA to another) occurred in the case of almost one-fifth of the young men (20 percent of the whites and 13 percent of the blacks).

The incidence of interfirm movement varies considerably according to several economic and social characteristics of the youth. It tends to vary inversely with the socioeconomic level of occupation, perhaps because involuntary separations from jobs are more likely at the bottom than at the top of the occupational hierarchy. It is also true that within each occupational category low-wage workers are more likely than high-wage workers to change jobs. The likelihood of an interfirm move during the two-year period is also inversely related to length of service in and degree of attachment to 1966 job, the latter measure based on responses to a hypothetical job offer during the initial survey. Finally, there is a persistent tendency for black youth to register more interfirm movement than white youth, which may in part be due to a greater incidence of layoffs among the former than among the latter.

The fact that youth in their twenties are in a steeply rising stage of their age-earnings profile is evidenced by the more than one-fourth increase over the two-year period in the average hourly rate of pay of the young men who were employed as wage and salary workers in all three years--an increase substantially greater than the average for wage and salary earners. The increase was greater in relative terms for blacks than for whites, with the result that the white-black relative earnings differential was reduced in all but one of the occupational categories investigated and virtually disappeared in the professional and technical worker category.

Increases in rates of pay were greater for those who made one employer change during the period than for those who were with the same employer at all three survey dates. Also, those who changed employers were more likely than those who did not to move up the occupational

ladder. These are rather impressive findings in view of the fact that the job changers include those who left their 1966 job involuntarily as well as those who quit.¹⁴ Even more impressive is the fact that although the job changers started with lower rates of pay than the nonchangers, they ended with higher rates in most of the occupational categories having enough sample cases for confident estimates. The evidence for this age group of men thus lends rather strong support to at least some of the predictions of conventional labor market theory. It should be noted, however, that there is no strong evidence for the same conclusion in the case of geographic movement.

Finally, there is evidence of labor market "progress" during the two-year period in the attitudes of the young men toward their jobs as well as in their earnings. Over half of the young men report liking their jobs better in 1968 than in 1966. Most of the remainder report no change in job attitude, but under one-tenth report less satisfaction in 1968 than in 1966, and about 10 percent have response patterns that cannot be classified. Those who changed employers during the two-year period are considerably more likely to register increased job satisfaction than those who did not, and are only very slightly more likely to register a decrease in satisfaction.

14 The reported relationship between interfirm movement and relative wage improvement is the only finding of the present chapter that is not consistent with data in our report on the second survey of the young men. Those who had changed employers between the 1966 and 1967 surveys were reported to have experienced increases in their average hourly rate of pay that were "generally smaller in absolute and relative terms than those received by young men who remained with the same employer." (Zeller, et al., Career Thresholds, Vol. II, p. 33.) In addition to the difference in the time period covered, there are additional differences between the two reports in methods of measurement. The present report uses a more refined occupational breakdown than the earlier one and also measures changes in rate of pay on the basis of the means for 1966 and 1968, whereas the report on the second survey used medians for 1966 and 1967 that were computed from grouped data.

Table 4A-1 Selected Measures of Change in Rate of Pay between 1966 and 1968 Surveys for Employed Out-of-School Youth, by Major Occupation Group of 1968 Job and Color: Youth Employed as Wage and Salary Workers in the Same Major Occupation Group in 1966 and 1968 Survey Weeks

Major occupation group, 1968 job	Total number (thousands)	Mean rate of pay, 1966	Mean rate of pay, 1968	Absolute change, 1966 to 1968	Percentage change 1966 to 1968	Percent with decrease in money rate of pay	Percent with decrease in real rate of pay ^a
WHITES							
White-collar	581	\$2.57	\$3.42	\$0.85	+33	5.7	13.2
Professional, technical	276	2.60	3.65	1.05	+40	6.8	9.5
Nonfarm managers, proprietors	73	b	b	b	b	b	b
Clerical, sales	271	2.57	3.13	0.56	+22	4.1	20.8
Blue-collar	1,455	2.61	3.24	0.63	+24	15.3	23.1
Craftsmen, foremen	520	2.64	3.58	0.94	+36	13.2	17.9
Operatives	825	2.61	3.09	0.48	+18	16.8	25.4
Nonfarm laborers	110	2.48	2.88	0.40	+16	13.8	30.2
Service	70	b	b	b	b	b	b
Farm	52	b	b	b	b	b	b
Total or average	2,162	2.57	3.24	0.67	+26	12.6	20.7
BLACKS							
White-collar	40	\$2.30	\$3.17	\$0.87	+38	7.4	22.2
Professional, technical	13	b	b	b	b	b	b
Nonfarm managers, proprietors	0	-	-	-	-	-	-
Clerical, sales	27	2.04	2.53	0.49	+24	11.1	33.5
Blue-collar	193	1.86	2.46	0.60	+32	4.1	13.3
Craftsmen, foremen	26	1.88	3.00	1.12	+60	0.0	0.0
Operatives	124	1.97	2.47	0.50	+25	4.2	16.9
Nonfarm laborers	43	1.52	2.10	0.58	+38	6.0	11.6
Service	35	1.85	2.40	0.55	+30	4.1	12.5
Farm	24	b	b	b	b	b	b
Total or average	293	1.87	2.49	0.62	+33	4.7	14.3

a Percent whose rate of pay in 1968 was less than 7.3 percent greater than that of 1966. This was the percentage by which the Consumer Price Index increased between October 1966 and October 1968.

b Not shown where base represents fewer than 25 sample cases.

Table 4A-2

Selected Measures of Change in Rate of Pay between 1966 and 1968 Surveys for Employed Out-of-School Youth, by Major Occupation Group of 1968 Job and Color: Youth Employed as Wage and Salary Workers in a Different Major Occupation Group in 1968 than in 1966

Major occupation group, 1968 job	Total number (thousands)	Mean rate of pay, 1966	Mean rate of pay, 1968	Absolute change, 1966 to 1968	Percentage change, 1966 to 1968	Percent with decrease in money rate of pay	Percent with decrease in real rate of pay ^a
WHITES							
White-collar	448	\$2.39	\$3.20	\$0.81	+34	13.5	20.7
Professional, technical	87	b	b	b	b	b	b
Nonfarm managers, proprietors	183	2.47	3.36	0.89	+36	16.2	18.3
Clerical, sales	178	2.18	3.10	0.92	+42	3.4	16.8
Blue-collar	740	2.18	2.77	0.59	+27	16.4	25.2
Craftsmen, foremen	280	2.22	2.90	0.68	+31	11.4	17.9
Operatives	311	2.28	2.79	0.51	+22	25.0	35.1
Nonfarm laborers	149	1.90	2.52	0.62	+33	8.5	18.7
Service	45	b	b	b	b	b	b
Farm	21	b	b	b	b	b	b
Total or average	1,254	2.26	2.90	0.64	+28	17.1	25.6
BLACKS							
White-collar	59	\$1.91	\$2.41	\$0.50	+26	20.3	23.2
Professional, technical	15	b	b	b	b	b	b
Nonfarm managers, proprietors	8	b	b	b	b	b	b
Clerical, sales	36	2.05	2.51	0.46	+22	15.2	19.9
Blue-collar	207	1.66	2.38	0.72	+43	11.6	20.3
Craftsmen, foremen	45	1.66	2.56	0.90	+54	3.6	17.1
Operatives	78	1.56	2.31	0.75	+48	14.6	20.4
Nonfarm laborers	85	1.77	2.35	0.58	+33	13.5	22.1
Service	24	b	b	b	b	b	b
Farm	6	b	b	b	b	b	b
Total or average	296	1.71	2.37	0.66	+38	13.6	22.5

a Percent whose rate of pay in 1968 was less than 7.3 percent greater than that of 1966. This was the percentage by which the Consumer Price Index increased between October 1966 and October 1968.

b Not shown where base represents fewer than 25 sample cases.

CONCLUDING OBSERVATIONS

With this report we arrive at approximately the halfway mark in our five-year longitudinal study of young men who were between the ages of 14 and 24 when the study began. Of the six annual surveys of the sample that have been planned, the third was conducted in the autumn of 1968. The present report has attempted to delineate some of the major changes that have occurred in the educational and labor market plans and status of that age cohort over the two-year period. More specifically, we have examined the extent of change in school enrollment status, educational and occupational aspirations, labor force participation, unemployment experience, employer and occupational affiliation, rate of compensation, extent of job satisfaction, and location of residence. In addition to describing the nature and extent of these types of changes, we have also begun to identify some of the correlates of change. Finally, we have examined the cumulative unemployment experience of the out-of-school youth over the two-year period covered by our data. In this very brief final chapter we make no effort at presenting a detailed catalogue of findings, since these are contained in the chapter summaries. Rather, our purpose is to tie together some of the major threads that seem to run through the data.

I THE "AGING" EFFECT

In our report on the initial survey on the young men we observed:

There is probably no other age group of males between the ages of 14 and 65 in which a few years make as much difference as they do in the case of the group under consideration in this study. At age 14 the youth is hardly more than a child; he is just embarking on his secondary education and is below the legal age limit for almost all types of full-time employment; he generally has no economic responsibilities; he is just emerging from the fantasy stage of occupational aspiration and he has very little knowledge or understanding of the dimensions of the world of work. Four years later he has completed high school and, if not in the armed services, either has entered the labor market for full-time employment or has continued his education or training in preparation for a more or less specific work career. By age 24, he has, in the vast majority of cases, left school permanently, has typically assumed the economic responsibilities of a family, and frequently has a more or less firm occupational commitment.

* This chapter was written by Herbert S. Parnes.

In a sense, the present report has attempted to view longitudinally some of these same dimensions of change that were inferred from cross-sectional data in that initial survey. We are, in effect, looking at precisely the same group of individuals at two points in time and attempting to account for whatever changes in status occurred. Fortunately for the analysis, the external environment was fairly similar at these two points in time, at least on the basis of conventional labor market criteria, so that it is reasonable to assume that changes in the status of the members of the sample are primarily attributable to changes in the characteristics of the individuals.

In many instances we have referred to such changes as the effect of "aging." We mean by this, of course, something more than the fact that the individual has added two years to his chronological age. The term is simply a shorthand expression for a number of aspects of the maturation process that have important implications for labor market aspirations or activity. For those in school, this includes two additional years of education; for those out of school, two additional years of work experience and labor market exposure. For the entire group, it means two additional years of life experience which, at these ages, may have profound effects upon depth of understanding and seriousness of purpose. Finally, for substantial portions of the cohort, it means the attainment of specific ages that constitute legally defined portals to a variety of job opportunities: e.g., 16 and 18 when the youth is first eligible for a driver's license and, under child labor laws, for service in an expanded number of occupations.

As the result of such factors, there is rather substantial change in professed occupational goals over a two-year period. Among the young men who were enrolled in school in 1966, two-fifths had by 1968 either developed an occupational goal or changed the one they had originally specified. While an intensive analysis of these changes remains to be made, there is some evidence that they are in the direction of greater "realism," at least in the sense of being consistent with educational experience. For example, of those who had specified a professional or technical occupational goal in 1966, approximately a fourth of the whites and a third of the blacks had either revised this downward by 1968 or had become uncertain. But the corresponding proportion was considerably higher among those who were no longer enrolled in school: about two-fifths of each color group.

Aging also makes a substantial difference with respect to labor force participation. In part, of course, the rise in the survey week labor force participation rate of 9 percentage points for whites and 12 percentage points for blacks reflects the decline in school enrollment rates by 15 percentage points in the case of whites and 17 points in the case of blacks. But the increases in activity rates were even slightly greater for those who were still in school in 1968: 10 percentage points for the whites and 13 for the blacks.

Since unemployment among students is invariably higher than among nonstudents, the declining proportion of the sample enrolled in school also helps to explain the drop in the unemployment rate of 2.4 percentage points for whites and 1.1 points for blacks during a period when CPS cross-sectional data registered no change for white youth and an increase of 3.1 points for black. Here again, however, the change in school status for many of the youth is only part of the explanation. For those who were still in school in 1968, the unemployment rate was 1 percentage point lower than it had been in 1966, although the situation was quite different for the blacks (plus 10.3 points) than for the whites (minus 2.3 points). For those who were out of school at all three survey dates, the unemployment rate also dropped slightly (1 point for whites and 0.4 for blacks).

Thus, there is evidence of the beneficent influence of maturation in the labor force participation and unemployment experience of the cohort. Nevertheless, the most dramatic manifestations of this influence are in the employment records of those who were out of school and employed in all three years. Hourly rates of pay, on average, increased by more than one-fourth over the two-year period, a gain substantially greater than the average for workers of all ages. Rates of interfirm movement were also very high compared with those for the total labor force. What is more important, the job changers enjoyed larger wage increases than the nonchangers, by and large, despite the fact that involuntary as well as voluntary separations are included in the comparison. Increases in job satisfaction were reported by most of the young men in the sample and upward occupational movement occurred in the case of about one-fourth of them, with those making interfirm shifts faring better than others by these criteria as well.

II BLACK-WHITE DIFFERENTIALS

Thus, the passing of two years has left the portion of the cohort remaining in the civilian population distinctly better off. How did these changes affect the relative standing of black and white youth? The answer varies, depending on what dimension of experience is under consideration.

The decline in enrollment rates was greater for blacks than for whites, thus widening the differential between them, although it is noteworthy that the differential in the proportion of high school graduates who enrolled in college narrowed. With respect to those remaining in school, black youth were more likely than white to have revised their educational goals downward, and were less likely to have revised them upward. This had the effect of widening the difference between the proportions aspiring to four years of college education. Reflecting these differences are the facts that the black youth were more likely to revise their occupational goals downward and more likely to continue to express uncertainty in this regard than were the white.

On the other hand, the aging process had a more strongly encouraging effect on the extent of labor market activity of blacks than of whites. Among those still enrolled in school in 1968 the participation rate of blacks actually exceeded that of whites by almost 2 percentage points, while a differential of 1.6 points in the opposite direction had prevailed in 1966. Among those who were out of school at all three survey dates the differential was reduced from 2.8 percentage points in favor of the whites in 1966 to less than half a percentage point in 1968. With respect to unemployment, on the other hand, the differential in favor of white youth widened somewhat, and particularly so among those who were still in school in 1968. Among the students the rate rose by 10.3 points for black youth while it fell by 2.3 points for the white. For those continuously out of school the rate dropped for both color groups, but by slightly more for whites than blacks.

Focusing on out-of-school youth who were employed at all three survey dates, the blacks improved their earnings position relative to whites over the two-year period. While the cents-per-hour increase was about the same for the two groups, this represented a larger relative increase for the blacks, and reduced the percentage differential in favor of whites from 37 percent in 1966 to 28 percent in 1968. The relative differential declined in all but one of the major occupation groups, and almost disappeared in the professional-technical worker category. The record is different, however, with respect to occupational change. Black youth were more likely than white to be in different occupations in 1968 from those they held in 1966, and while upward movement was somewhat more common than downward movement, the proportion of blacks who ostensibly moved downward (according to the Duncan index of socioeconomic status) was higher than among the whites.

Black youth were considerably more likely than white youth to have moved among employers during the two-year period, probably as the result of higher rates of voluntary movement as well as of a greater incidence of involuntary separations. In any case, the improvement in earnings position of blacks relative to whites was more pronounced among the job-changers than among those who remained with the same employer through the two-year period.

In interpreting the changes in the relative positions of black and white youth that have been summarized above, it is necessary to recognize that the differences that have been observed do not necessarily imply that the aging effect operates differently between the two color groups, since the external environment almost certainly changed differentially for blacks and whites during the two-year period under consideration. It is at least as reasonable to believe that whatever improvements occurred in the relative position of blacks stemmed from the effects of civil rights movement during this period as from a more profound "maturation effect" in the case of blacks than in the case of whites.

The fact that our data cover a full 24-month period has produced some new measures of the impact of unemployment. On the basis of these data, it is clear that exposure of young men in their late teens and early twenties to unemployment is substantially understated by conventional unemployment rates or even by data on annual work experience. Thus, considering all those who were out of school at the time of all three interviews, survey week unemployment rates were about 1 percent for whites and 3 percent for blacks and the proportions with some unemployment during a 12-month period were about one-fifth of the whites and one-third of the blacks.¹ However, fully one-fourth of the whites and over two-fifths of the blacks had at least one spell of unemployment during the two-year period. Multiple spells were also common, occurring in the case of more than one-tenth of the white youth and more than one-fourth of the black. Mean number of weeks of unemployment among those with at least one spell during the period was 11.3 for the whites and 14.7 for the blacks.

Otherwise, there are few if any surprises in the data on the two-year unemployment experience. They show the same inverse relation between susceptibility to unemployment and both age and extent of education that is evident in the more conventional measures. Similarly, the usual intercolor difference prevails, and is particularly pronounced with respect to the incidence of multiple spells of unemployment. Thus, black youth were 1.3 times as likely as white youth to experience any unemployment during the two-year period, but were about 2.5 times as likely to experience two or more spells and 3.6 times as likely to suffer at least three spells. The greater average cumulative duration of unemployment among blacks than among whites (14.7 versus 11.3 weeks) is due more to the greater incidence of multiple spells among the blacks than to a longer average duration per spell (7.7 weeks for blacks versus 6.6 weeks for whites).

IV CONCLUSION

Despite some differences in the specific topics analyzed, the overall conclusions that emerge from this third survey of the young men do not differ in any substantial way from those drawn on the basis of the second survey. Processes of movement through the educational system and of adjustment in educational and occupational goals are not dramatically different over the two-year period from what they were over the one-year period between the first two surveys.

1 These figures are based on the unemployment experience in the 12-month period prior to the 1967 survey among those interviewed at that time who were not enrolled in school either then or in 1966.

For those whose schooling was completed even at the time of the first survey, the labor market experiences over the two-year period display basically the same pattern as did the one-year record.² By and large, the labor market appears to operate fairly well for a substantial majority of this group of youth, both in terms of assuring continuous employment and in promising the opportunity for improvement in economic and psychological rewards from work. Moreover, there continues to be evidence that the passage of time helps to mitigate the employment problems that substantial numbers of the younger and less well educated members of the cohort encounter.

It is perhaps unnecessary to observe that this does not argue for complacency, since the evidence also suggests that the numbers who experience substantial labor market problems are unnecessarily large. As we indicated in the concluding paragraph of our previous report, a major objective of the total longitudinal study is to analyze the characteristics and the experiences of this group in the hope that the analysis will suggest measures for mitigating the problems they face. To some extent, of course, this has already been done, and the evidence thus far points to the importance of such factors as educational attainment and of the extent of labor market information. But additional analysis is required before even these ostensibly obvious conclusions can be proclaimed with confidence. We do not yet know, for example, to what extent number of years of school completed is reflecting the influence of such factors as intelligence and motivation rather than the pure effect of educational attainment. Nor are we certain that our measure of labor market information is really measuring knowledge of the world of work rather than intelligence. Questions of these kinds remain to be answered on the basis of multivariate analysis, some of which is already in progress.

2 As has been seen, the one-year record did not support the hypothesis that job-changers enjoyed greater wage increases than nonchangers, as is true of the two-year record reported here. But this difference may well be attributed to the more refined methods of measurement that have been used in the present report.

NOTE ON TABLES

The tables in this report have a number of characteristics that deserve some comment. In a study of this kind, interest generally focuses on relative rather than absolute magnitudes, e.g., the proportions of white men and of black men who have a given characteristic, rather than their numbers. Accordingly, data in virtually all tables are presented in terms of percentages. In all cases, however, the base of each percentage is shown, so that its statistical reliability can be estimated. In calculating percentage distributions, cases for which no information was obtained are excluded from the total. This amounts to assuming that those who did not respond to a particular question do not differ in any relevant respect from those who did.¹ All percentage distributions, therefore, should add up to 100 percent; when they do not, it is because of rounding. It should be observed, however, that when absolute numbers do not add to the indicated total, the difference is attributable (unless otherwise noted) to cases for which no information was obtained, as well as to rounding.

Percentages in most tables have been rounded to the nearest whole percentage point. To record them to the nearest tenth would clutter the tables unnecessarily and create the impression of a degree of accuracy that does not in fact exist. To be statistically significant, differences in percentages in this study generally have to be at least several percentage points; thus, there is not much purpose in expressing percentages to the nearest tenth of a point. There are a few exceptions to this general rule. For example, because labor force participation rates are so high and their bases so large, their standard errors are quite small; hence very small differences may be significant.

With rare exceptions, our tables involve at least three-way cross-classifications in which color is almost always one of the variables. Our purpose is generally to ascertain how an independent variable interacts with color to "explain" some aspect of labor market behavior. For example, are marital status and labor force participation related in the same way for black men as for white men? Since we are much more interested in this type of question than in the relation between

1 Nonresponse rates exceed 10 percent in only a very few variables. In these cases, nonresponse bias, if suspected, has been taken into account in the interpretation.

two variables for the total population irrespective of color, most of our tables omit the totals for blacks and whites combined. It might be mentioned that because of the overwhelming numerical importance of the whites, the distribution of the total population by any variable resembles very closely the distribution of the whites.

Percentages are not shown in table cells if the base is fewer than 25 sample cases. In our interpretations, of course, we are mindful of sampling error and, as a rough rule of thumb, we are inclined not to say anything about percentages based upon fewer than 50 sample cases, for sampling error in such cases may be very high. For example, the standard error of a percentage in the neighborhood of 50 is about 10 percentage points when the base is 50 sample cases; for percentages near 5 and 95, the standard error is about 4 percentage points. The reader who wishes to observe the same cautions in interpreting the tables should keep in mind that the "blown up" population figure corresponding to 50 sample cases is approximately 188 thousand for whites and about 66 thousand for blacks.

AGE

Age of respondent as of last birthday prior to April 1, 1968.

ATTACHMENT TO 1966 JOB: See PROSPECTIVE INTERFIRM MOBILITY

ATTRITION RATE

The attrition rate between year x and year y is the proportion of respondents interviewed in year x who were not reinterviewed, for whatever reason, in year y. The "noninterview rate" between year x and year y is the proportion of respondents in year x who were not interviewed in year y for reasons other than entry into the armed forces.

CLASS OF WORKER

Wage and Salary Worker

A person working for a rate of pay per time-unit, commission, tips, payment in kind, or piece rates for a private employer or any government unit.

Self-employed Worker

A person working in his own unincorporated business, profession, or trade, or operating a farm for profit or fees.

Unpaid Family Worker

A person working without pay on a farm or in a business operated by a member of the household to whom he is related by blood or marriage.

COLOR

In this report the term "blacks" refers only to Negroes; "whites" refers to Caucasians. Thus, there is a difference in terminology between this report and the first two volumes of this series in which "blacks" referred to the group now referred to in U. S. Government reports as "Negro and other races."

COMPARATIVE JOB STATUS, 1966, 1967, AND 1968

Whether the respondent worked for the same employer in 1968 as in 1967 and 1966. The categories are: same employer all three years; same employer two consecutive years; different employer all three years. Because of the coding procedures used, this last category may include some respondents with the same employer in 1966 and 1968, but a different employer in 1967.

COMPARISON OF EDUCATIONAL ASPIRATIONS (GOALS)

The difference between the educational goal stated by the respondent in 1968 and the goal stated in 1966. The categories "upward" and "downward" designate differences of at least one year.

COMPARATIVE SATISFACTION WITH JOB, 1966 and 1968

Whether the respondent says he likes his current job more than, the same as, or less than the job he held in 1966 (irrespective of whether it was the same or a different job).

CURRENT POPULATION SURVEY

Monthly survey of the population conducted by the U. S. Bureau of the Census to estimate the size and characteristics of the labor force.

DISEMPLOYMENT RATE

The proportion of respondents employed during the survey week of the earlier year who are unemployed or out of the labor force in the survey week of the later year.

EDUCATIONAL ASPIRATIONS (GOALS)

Total number of years of regular school that the respondent would like to achieve.

EDUCATIONAL ATTAINMENT: See HIGHEST YEAR OF SCHOOL COMPLETED

EMPLOYED: See LABOR FORCE AND EMPLOYMENT STATUS

FAMILY INCOME

Income from all sources (including wages and salaries, net income from business or farm, pensions, dividends, interest, rent, royalties, social insurance, and public assistance) received in the 12-month period prior to any survey date by any family member living in the household at the time of that survey. Income of nonrelatives living in the household is not included.

HIGH SCHOOL CURRICULUM

Orientation and goal of high school courses, usually related to future educational or occupational plans. Categories used are "college preparatory," "vocational," "commercial," and "general."

HIGHEST YEAR OF SCHOOL COMPLETED

The highest year finished by the respondent in "regular" school, where years of school completed are denoted 9-11, 12, 13-15, etc.

HOURLY RATE OF PAY

Compensation--in dollars--for work performed. This is limited to wage and salary workers because it is virtually impossible to ascertain to what extent the earnings of the self-employed are wages as opposed to other kinds of returns. If a time unit other than an hour was reported, hourly rates were computed by first converting the reported figure into a weekly rate and then dividing by the number of hours usually worked per week.

HOURS WORKED DURING SURVEY WEEK

The total number of hours worked at all jobs held by the respondent during the calendar week preceding the date of interview.

JOB

A continuous period of service with a given employer.

Current or Last Job

For those respondents who were employed during the survey week: the job held during the survey week.

For those respondents who were either unemployed or out of the labor force: the most recent job.

KNOWLEDGE OF THE WORLD OF WORK: See OCCUPATIONAL INFORMATION TEST

LABOR FORCE AND EMPLOYMENT STATUS

In the Labor Force

All respondents who were either employed or unemployed during the survey week.

Employed

All respondents who during the survey week were either (1) "at work"--those who did any work for pay or profit or worked without pay for 15 hours or more on a family farm or business; or (2) "with a job but not at work"--those who did not work and were not looking for work, but had a job or business from which they were temporarily absent because of vacation, illness, industrial dispute, bad weather, or because they were taking time off for various other reasons.

Unemployed

All respondents who did not work at all during the survey week and (1) either were looking or had looked for a job in the four-week period prior to the survey; (2) were waiting to be recalled to a job from which they were laid off; or (3) were waiting to report to a new job within 30 days.

Out of the Labor Force

All respondents who were neither employed nor unemployed during the survey week.

LABOR FORCE PARTICIPATION RATE

The proportion of the total population or of a subgroup of the population classified as "in the labor force."

LENGTH OF SERVICE IN 1966 JOB

The total number of years spent by the respondent in the job in which he was employed during the 1966 survey week.

LOCAL LABOR MARKET AREA: See PRIMARY SAMPLING UNIT (PSU)

MARITAL STATUS

Respondents are classified into the following categories: married, spouse present; married, spouse absent; divorced; widowed; separated; and never married. The term "married" in the text includes those respondents who are married, spouse present, in the survey week. "Nonmarried" includes all others.

MIGRATION, 1966 TO 1968

This variable is based on a comparison of county (SMSA) of residence in the survey weeks of 1966 and 1968. Thus, migration is defined as a situation in which the county (SMSA) of residence differs between these two periods, and ignores intervening moves and returns that may have occurred.

NONSTUDENT

All respondents not enrolled in regular school at the time of the survey.

OCCUPATION

The 10 occupation groups are the 10 one-digit classes used by the Bureau of the Census in the 1960 Census. The four types of occupation are white-collar (professional and technical workers; managers, officials, and proprietors; clerical workers; and sales workers); blue-collar (craftsmen and foremen, operatives, and nonfarm laborers); service; and farm (farmers, farm managers, and farm laborers).

OCCUPATION DESIRED AT AGE 30

The kind of work which the respondent would like to be doing when he is 30 years old.

OCCUPATIONAL CHANGE

A change in occupational assignment from one three-digit Census category to another.

OCCUPATIONAL INFORMATION TEST (measured in 1966 survey only)

A series of questions designed to measure the extent of the respondent's information about the labor market. First, the respondent is asked to choose one of several job descriptions that best matches each of 10 specified job titles. Second, he is asked to indicate the amount of regular schooling typically achieved by men in each of the occupations. Third, he chooses from a pair of occupations the one in which he thinks average annual earnings is higher. For scoring procedure see Parnes, et al., Career Thresholds, Vol. I, pp. 120-21, n. 1.

OCCUPATIONAL TRAINING OUTSIDE SCHOOL

Program(s) taken outside the regular school system for other than social or recreational purposes. Sponsoring agents include government, unions, and business enterprises. A training course sponsored by a company must last at least six weeks to be considered a "program."

OUT OF THE LABOR FORCE: See LABOR FORCE AND EMPLOYMENT STATUS

PROSPECTIVE GEOGRAPHIC MOBILITY (measured in 1966)

Relative increase in rate of pay for which an employed respondent would be willing to accept a hypothetical offer of employment in the same line of work outside the local labor market area in which he resides. The categories are as follows: highly mobile --would accept a job for less than a 10 percent increase in pay; moderately mobile --would accept a job for a 10 percent or greater increase in pay; immobile --would not accept a job under any circumstances.

PROSPECTIVE INTERFIRM MOBILITY (measured in 1966)

Relative increase in rate of pay for which an employed respondent would be willing to accept a hypothetical offer of employment in the same line of work with a different employer in the same local labor market area. The categories used are the same as for PROSPECTIVE GEOGRAPHIC MOBILITY.

PSU (PRIMARY SAMPLING UNIT)

One of the 235 areas of the country from which the sample for this study was drawn; usually an SMSA (standard metropolitan statistical area) or a county.

REACTION TO HYPOTHETICAL JOB OFFER: See PROSPECTIVE GEOGRAPHIC MOBILITY and PROSPECTIVE INTERFIRM MOBILITY

REGULAR SCHOOL

"Regular" schools include graded public, private, and parochial elementary and high schools; colleges; universities; and professional schools.

SCHOOL ENROLLMENT STATUS

An indication of whether or not the respondent is enrolled in regular school during the survey week.

SELF-EMPLOYED: See CLASS OF WORKER

SURVEY WEEK

For convenience, the term "survey week" is used to denote the calendar week preceding the date of interview. In the conventional terminology of the Bureau of the Census, it means "reference week."

UNEMPLOYED: See LABOR FORCE AND EMPLOYMENT STATUS

UNEMPLOYMENT

Cumulative Duration of:

Cumulative number of weeks during which the respondent reported that he was looking for work or on lay-off from a job.

Duration per Spell of:

Average (mean) number of weeks unemployed per spell of unemployment.

Rate:

The proportion of the labor force classified as unemployed.

Spell of:

A continuous period of unemployment of at least one week's duration.

Repetitiveness of:

The likelihood of a respondent experiencing more than one spell of unemployment during a given time period (e.g., a year).

UNPAID FAMILY WORKER: See CLASS OF WORKER

VOCATIONAL TRAINING OUTSIDE SCHOOL: See OCCUPATIONAL TRAINING OUTSIDE SCHOOL

WAGE AND SALARY WORKERS: See CLASS OF WORKER

WAGE RATE: See HOURLY RATE OF PAY

WEEKS IN LABOR FORCE

Cumulative number of weeks that the respondent reported that he was either working, looking for work, or on lay-off from a job.

SAMPLING, INTERVIEWING AND ESTIMATING PROCEDURES

The Survey of Work Experience of Young Men is one of four longitudinal surveys sponsored by the Manpower Administration of the U. S. Department of Labor. Taken together these surveys comprise the National Longitudinal Surveys.

The 1968 survey was the third of a series of six annual interviews conducted for the Survey of Work Experience of Young Men. The respondents were between the ages of 14 and 24 at the time of the first interview conducted in 1966; thus, the age range in 1968 was 16 to 26.

The Sample Design

The National Longitudinal Surveys are based on a multi-stage probability sample located in 235 sample areas comprising 485 counties and independent cities representing every state and the District of Columbia. The 235 sample areas were selected by grouping all of the nation's counties and independent cities into about 1,900 primary sampling units (PSU's) and further forming 235 strata of one or more PSU's that are relatively homogeneous according to socioeconomic characteristics. Within each of the strata a single PSU was selected by chance to represent the stratum. Within each PSU a probability sample of housing units was selected to represent the civilian noninstitutionalized population.

Since one of the survey requirements was to provide separate reliable statistics for Negroes and other races, households in predominantly Negro and other race enumeration districts (ED's) were selected at a rate three times that for households in predominantly white ED's. The sample was designed to provide approximately 5,000 interviews for each of the four surveys--about 1,500 Negroes and other races and 3,500 whites. When this requirement was examined in light of the expected number of persons in each age-sex-color group it was found that approximately 42,000 households would be required in order to find the requisite number of Negroes and other races in each age-sex group.

An initial sample of about 42,000 housing units was selected and a screening interview took place in March and April 1966. Of this number about 7,500 units were found to be vacant, occupied by persons whose usual

* This appendix was written by Rachel Cordesman, member of the Longitudinal Surveys Branch, Demographic Surveys Division, U. S. Bureau of the Census.

residence was elsewhere, changed from residential use, or demolished. On the other hand, about 900 additional units were found which had been created within existing living space or had been changed from what was previously nonresidential space. Thus, 35,360 housing units were available for interview; of these, usable information was collected for 34,662 households, a completion rate of 98.0 percent.

The original plan called for using this initial screening to select the sample for all sample groups. On reflection it was decided to rescreen the sample in the fall of 1966 prior to the first interview of males 14 to 24. Males in the upper part of that age group are the most mobile group in the entire population and a seven-month delay between the initial screening and the first interview seemed to invite problems.

To increase efficiency, it was decided to stratify the sample for the rescreening by the presence or absence of a 14-to 24-year-old male in the household. The probability is great that a household which contained a 14-to 24-year-old in March will also have one in September. However, we had to insure that the sample also represented persons who had moved into sample households in the intervening period, so that a sample of addresses which had no 14-to 24-year-old males was also included in the screening operation.

This phase of the screening began in early September 1966. Since a telephone number had been recorded for most households at the time of the initial interview, every attempt was made to complete the short screening interview by telephone.

Following this screening operation, 5,704 males age 14 to 24 were designated to be interviewed for the Survey of Work Experience. These were sampled differentially within four strata: whites in white ED's (i.e., ED's which contained predominantly white households), Negroes and other races in white ED's, whites in Negro and other races ED's, and Negroes and other races in Negro and other races ED's.

The Field Work

Three hundred and twenty-five interviewers were assigned to the survey. Many of the procedures and the labor force and socioeconomic concepts used in this survey were identical or similar to those used in the Current Population Survey (CPS); by selecting a staff of interviewers with CPS experience, the quality of the interviewers was increased and the time and costs of the training were reduced.

The training program for the interviewers consisted of home study which included a set of exercises covering the procedures and concepts explained in the reference manual, supplemented by a day of classroom training conducted by a survey supervisor. The supervisor was provided with a "verbatim" training guide which included lecture material and a number of structured practice interviews which were designed to familiarize the interviewers with the questionnaire. All training materials were

prepared by the Bureau staff and reviewed by the Manpower Administration and the Center for Human Resource Research of The Ohio State University. Twenty-six training sessions were held in twenty-three cities throughout the country. Professional staff members of the participating organizations observed the training sessions, and later, the actual interviewing.

Training began October 21, 1968, and the interviewing immediately thereafter. The interviewing continued until the beginning of January. Completion of the field work was delayed for several reasons--the interviewers had to devote about one week a month to CPS, and a number of the interviewers had other surveys for which they were responsible in addition to this one. However, there were several other significant factors which affected the interviewer's ability to complete her assignment on time:

1. At least a year had passed since the respondent was last contacted and the listed addresses were obsolete for a number of the respondents. Therefore, a great deal of time was spent in locating respondents.
2. Most of the respondents were of draft age and some of them were in the armed forces, about to go in or had already completed their tour of duty and had been discharged.
3. Many respondents were attending school and/or working; thus, there were only certain times of the day that the respondent was potentially available for interviewing.

Of the 5,704 respondents originally selected for the sample, 5,225 cases were interviewed in 1966 for a completion rate of 91.6.

Summary, 1966 Interview

	Total sample selected	Total inter-views	Nonresponse				
			Refusals	Armed forces	Moved	Other	Total
Total number	5,704	5,225	120	70	171	118	479
Percent of workload	100.0	91.6	2.1	1.2	3.0	2.1	8.4
Percent of nonresponse			25.1	14.6	35.7	24.6	100.0

The 5,225 young men who were interviewed in 1966 constituted the panel for the 1967 survey. Those cases which were nonresponses in 1966 were not included in the 1967 survey because there would be no base year data for them. Fourteen respondents died between the 1966 and 1967 surveys, leaving 5,211 persons eligible to be interviewed for the 1967 survey. Interviews were obtained from 4,778 respondents for a completion rate of 91.7.

Summary, 1967 Interview

	Total eligible for interview	Total interviews	Nonresponse				
			Refusals	Armed forces	Unable to contact	Other	Total
Total number	5,211	4,778	65	276	71	21	433
Percent of workload	100.0	91.7	1.2	5.3	1.4	0.4	8.3
Percent of nonresponse			15.0	63.7	16.4	4.9	100.0

Cases which were nonresponses in 1966 were permanently dropped from the sample. However, if a respondent was interviewed in 1966 and was a nonresponse in 1967 for reasons other than refusal, another attempt was made in 1968 to obtain an interview with him. Of the 5,146 young men eligible for reinterview in 1968 (5,211 minus 65 refusals in 1967), 10 persons died between the 1967 and 1968 surveys. Interviews were obtained from 4,330 of the remaining 5,136 cases for a completion rate of 84.3.

Summary, 1968 Interview

	Total eligible for interview	Total interviews	Nonresponse				
			Refusals	Armed forces	Unable to contact	Other	Total
Total number	5,136	4,330	69	553	146	38	806
Percent of workload	100.0	84.3	1.4	10.8	2.8	0.7	15.7
Percent of nonresponse			8.6	68.6	18.1	4.7	100.0

A preliminary edit to check the quality of the completed questionnaires was done by the regional office staffs. This consisted of a "full edit" of each questionnaire returned by each interviewer. The editor reviewed the questionnaires from beginning to end, to determine if the entries were complete and consistent and whether the skip instructions were being followed.

The interviewer was contacted by phone concerning minor problems, and depending on the nature of the problem, was either merely told of her error and asked to contact the respondent for further information or for clarification, or, for more serious problems, was retrained, either totally or in part, and the questionnaire was returned to her for completion.

Estimating Methods

The estimation procedure implemented for this survey in 1966 was a multi-stage ratio estimate. The first step was the assignment to each sample case of a basic weight which took into account the over-representation of the Negro and other race strata, the rescreening procedure, and the sampling fraction of the stratum from which it was selected. The sample drawn from the white stratum was selected at an eight-out-of-nine ratio, while the selection for the sample for the Negro and other race stratum was at a seven-out-of-eight ratio. Thus, from the Survey of Work Experience of Young Men, there were four different base weights reflecting the differential sampling by color within stratum (i.e., white ED's) during both the rescreening and selection operations.

1. Noninterview Adjustment

The weights for all interviewed persons were adjusted to the extent needed to account for persons for whom no information was obtained because of absence, refusals, or unavailability for other reasons. This adjustment was made separately for each of 24 groupings: Census region of residence (Northeast, North Central, South, West), by residence (urban, rural farm, rural nonfarm), by color (white, Negro and other races).

2. Ratio Estimates

The distribution of the population selected for the sample may differ somewhat, by chance, from that of the nation as a whole, in such characteristics as age, color, sex, and residence. Since these population characteristics are closely correlated with the principal measurements made from the sample, the latter estimates can be substantially improved when weighted appropriately by the known

distribution of these population characteristics.¹ This was accomplished through two stages of ratio estimation, as follows:

a. First-Stage Ratio Estimation

This is a procedure in which the sample proportions were adjusted to the known 1960 Census data on the color-residence distribution of the population. This step took into account the differences existing at the time of the 1960 Census between the color-residence distribution for the nation and for the sample areas.

b. Second-Stage Ratio Estimation

In this final step, the sample proportions were adjusted to independent current estimates of the civilian noninstitutional population by age and color. These estimates were prepared by carrying forward the most recent Census data (1960) to take account of subsequent aging of the population, mortality, and migration between the United States and other countries.² The adjustment was made by color within five age groupings: 14 to 15, 16 to 17, 18 to 19, 20 to 21, and 22 to 24.

After this step, each sample person has a weight which remains unchanged throughout the five-year life of the survey. The universe of study was thus fixed at the time of interview for the first cycle. No reweighting of the sample is made after subsequent cycles since the group of interviewed persons is an unbiased sample of the population group (in this case, civilian noninstitutionalized males age 14 to 24) in existence at the time of the first cycle only.

Coding and Editing

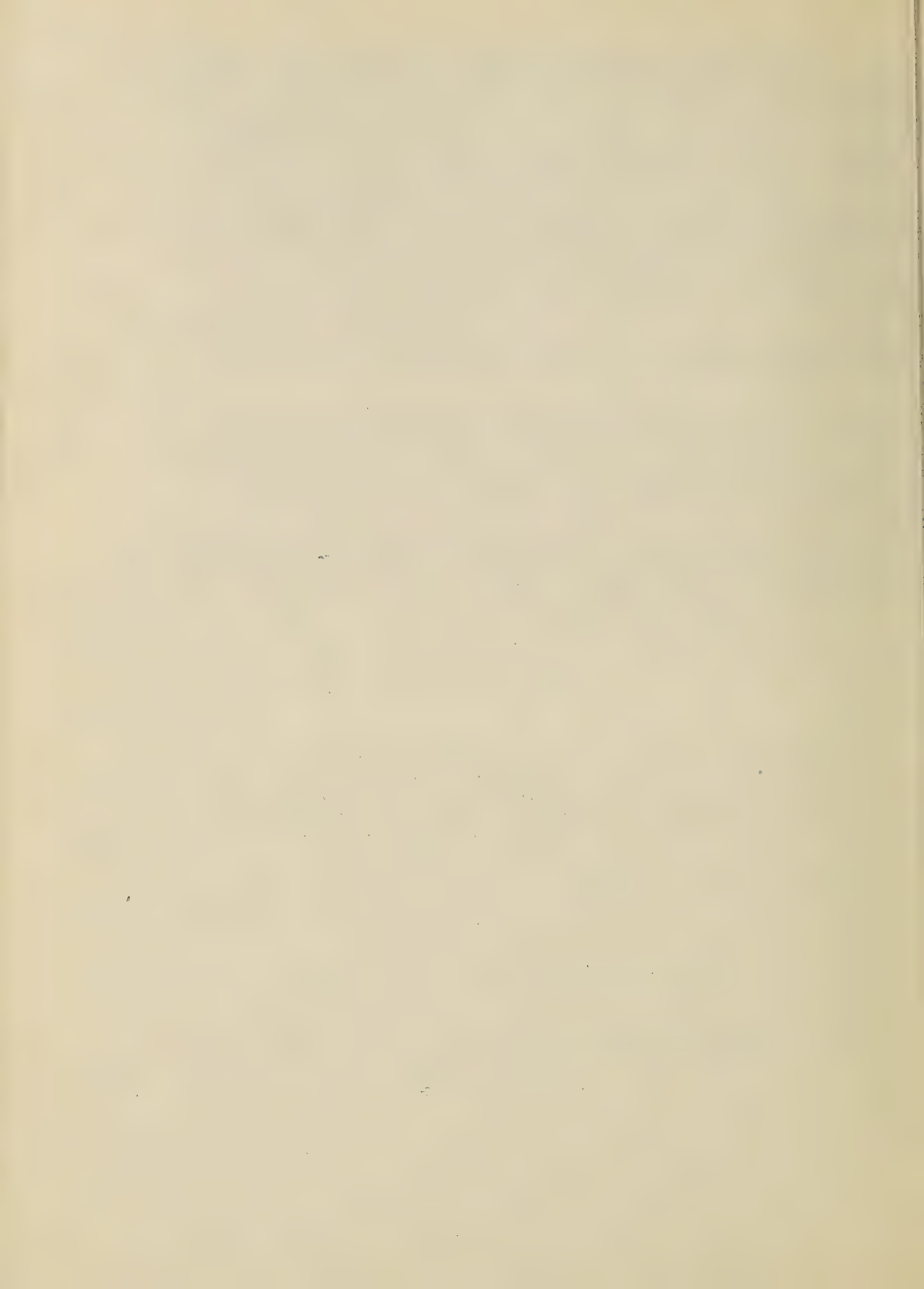
Most of the data could be punched directly from the questionnaire, since many of the answers were numerical entries or in the form of precoded categories. However, the Bureau's standard occupation and industry codes which are used in the monthly CPS were also used for the job description questions and these codes are assigned clerically. In addition, the answers for all the "open-end" questions had to be clerically coded, using categories which were previously developed in conjunction with the Center for Human Resource Research from hand tallies of a subsample of completed questionnaires.

1 See U.S. Bureau of the Census, Technical Paper No. 7, "The Current Population Survey--A Report on Methodology" (Washington, D.C., 1963), for a more detailed explanation of the preparation of estimates.

2 See U.S. Bureau of the Census, Current Population Reports, Series P-25, No. 352, November 18, 1966, for a description of the methods used in preparing these independent population estimates.

The consistency edits for the questionnaire were completed on the computer. A modification of the CPS edit was used for the parts of the questionnaire which were similar to CPS; separate consistency checks were performed for all the other sections. None of the edits included an allocation routine which was dependent on averages or random information from outside sources, since such allocated data could not be expected to be consistent with data from subsequent surveys. However, where the answer to a question was obvious from others in the questionnaire, the missing answer was assigned to the item on the tape. For example, if item 15b ("Do you have a scholarship, fellowship, assistantship, or other type of financial aid this year?") was blank, but legitimate entries appeared in 15c and d ("What kind?" and "How much is it per year?"), a "Yes" was inserted in 15b. In this case, only if 15b was marked "Yes," could 15c-d be filled; therefore, the assumption was made that either the key punch operator failed to punch the item or the interviewer failed to mark it.

Further, some of the status codes which depend on the answers to a number of different items were completed using only partial information. For example, the current employment status of the respondent (that is, whether he was employed, unemployed, or not in the labor force) is determined by the answers to a number of related questions. However, if one or more of these questions is not completed but the majority are filled and consistent with each other, the status is determined on the basis of the available answers. This procedure accounts for an artificially low count of "NA's" for certain items.



SAMPLING VARIATION

As in any survey based upon a sample, the data in this report are subject to sampling error, that is, variation attributable solely to the fact that they emerge from a sample rather than from a complete count of the population. Because the probabilities of a given individual's appearing in the sample are known, it is possible to estimate the sampling error, at least roughly. For example, it is possible to specify a "confidence interval" for each absolute figure or percentage, that is, the range within which the true value of the figure is likely to fall. For this purpose, the standard error of the statistic is generally used. One standard error on either side of a given statistic provides the range of values which has a two-thirds probability of including the true value. This probability increases to about 95 percent if a range of two standard errors is used.

Standard Errors of Percentages

In the case of percentages, the size of the standard error depends not only on the magnitude of the percentage, but also on the size of the base on which the percentage is computed. Thus, the standard error of 80 percent may be only 1 percentage point when the base is the total number of white men, but as much as 8 or 9 percentage points when the base is the total number of unemployed white men. Two tables of standard errors, one for whites and one for blacks, are shown below (Tables D-1 and D-2).

The method of ascertaining the appropriate standard error of a percentage¹ may be illustrated by the following example. This sample represents approximately 5,400,000 white men who were 21 to 26 years old in 1968. Our estimates indicate that 92 percent of these men were in the labor force at the time of the 1968 survey. Entering the table for white men (D-1) with the base of 5,000,000 and the percentage 90, one finds the standard error to be 1.2 percentage points. Thus, chances are two out of three that a complete enumeration would have resulted in a figure between 93.2 and 90.8 percent (92 ± 1.2) and 19 out of 20 that the figure would have been between 94.4 and 89.6 percent (92 ± 2.4).

1 Because the sample is not random, the conventional formula for the standard error of a percentage cannot be used. The entries in the tables have been computed on the basis of a formula suggested by the Bureau of the Census statisticians. They should be interpreted as providing an indication of the order of magnitude of the standard error, rather than a precise standard error for any specific item.

Table D-1 Standard Errors of Estimated Percentages of Whites
(68 chances out of 100)

Base of percentage (thousands)	Estimated percentage				
	1 or 99	5 or 95	10 or 90	20 or 80	50
100	2.8	6.0	8.3	11.1	13.9
200	1.9	4.2	5.8	7.8	9.7
350	1.5	3.2	4.4	5.9	7.3
500	1.2	2.7	3.7	4.9	6.1
1,000	0.9	1.9	2.6	3.5	4.3
5,000	0.4	0.8	1.2	1.5	1.9
14,046	0.2	0.5	0.7	0.9	1.2

Table D-2 Standard Errors of Estimated Percentages of Blacks
(68 chances out of 100)

Base of percentage (thousands)	Estimated percentage				
	1 or 99	5 or 95	10 or 90	20 or 80	50
25	3.3	7.3	10.0	13.3	16.7
50	2.3	5.1	7.1	9.4	11.8
100	1.6	3.6	5.0	6.6	8.3
200	1.2	2.5	3.5	4.7	5.8
750	0.6	1.3	1.8	2.4	3.0
1,400	0.4	1.0	1.3	1.8	2.2
2,041	0.4	0.8	1.1	1.5	1.8

Standard Errors of Differences between Percentages

In analyzing and interpreting the data, interest will perhaps most frequently center on the question whether observed differences in percentages are "real," or whether they result simply from sampling variation. If, for example, one finds on the basis of the survey that 3.3 percent of the whites, as compared with 7 percent of the blacks, are unable to work, the question arises whether this difference actually prevails in the population or whether it might have been produced by sampling variation. The answer to this question, expressed in terms of probabilities, depends on the standard error of the difference between the two percentages, which, in turn, is related to their magnitudes as well as to the size of the base of each. Although a precise answer to the question would require extended calculation, it is possible to construct charts that will indicate roughly, for different ranges of bases and different magnitudes of the percentages themselves, whether a given difference may be considered to be "significant," i.e., is sufficiently large that there is less than a 5 percent chance that it would have been produced by sampling variation alone. Such charts are shown below.

The magnitude of the quotient produced by dividing the difference between any two percentages by the standard error of the difference determines whether that difference is significant. Since the standard error of the difference depends only on the size of the percentages and their bases, for differences centered around a given percentage it is possible to derive a function which relates significant differences to the size of the bases of the percentages. If a difference around the given percentage is specified, the function then identifies those bases which will produce a standard error small enough for the given difference to be significant. The graphs which follow show functions of this type; each curve identifies combinations of bases that will make a given difference around a given percentage significant. For all combinations of bases on or to the northeast of a given curve, the given difference is the maximum difference necessary for significance.

Thus, to determine whether the difference between two percentages is significant, first locate the appropriate graph by selecting the one labeled with the percentage closest to the midpoint between the two percentages in question. When this percentage is under 50, the base of the larger percentage should be read on the horizontal axis of the chart and the base of the smaller percentage on the vertical axis. When the midpoint between the two percentages is greater than 50, the two axes are to be reversed. (When the midpoint is exactly 50 percent, either axis may be used for either base.) The two coordinates identify a

point on the graph. The relation between this point and the curves indicates the order of magnitude required for a difference between the two percentages to be statistically significant at the 5 percent confidence level.

All this may be illustrated as follows. Suppose in the case of the whites the question is whether the difference between 27 percent (on a base of 6,000,000)² and 33 percent (on a base of 5,000,000) is significant.³ Since the percentages center on 30 percent, Figure 4 should be used. Entering the vertical axis of this graph with 6,000,000 and the horizontal axis with 5,000,000 provides a coordinate which lies to the northeast of the curve showing combinations of bases for which a difference of 5 percent is significant. Thus the 6 percentage point difference (between 27 and 33 percent) is significant.

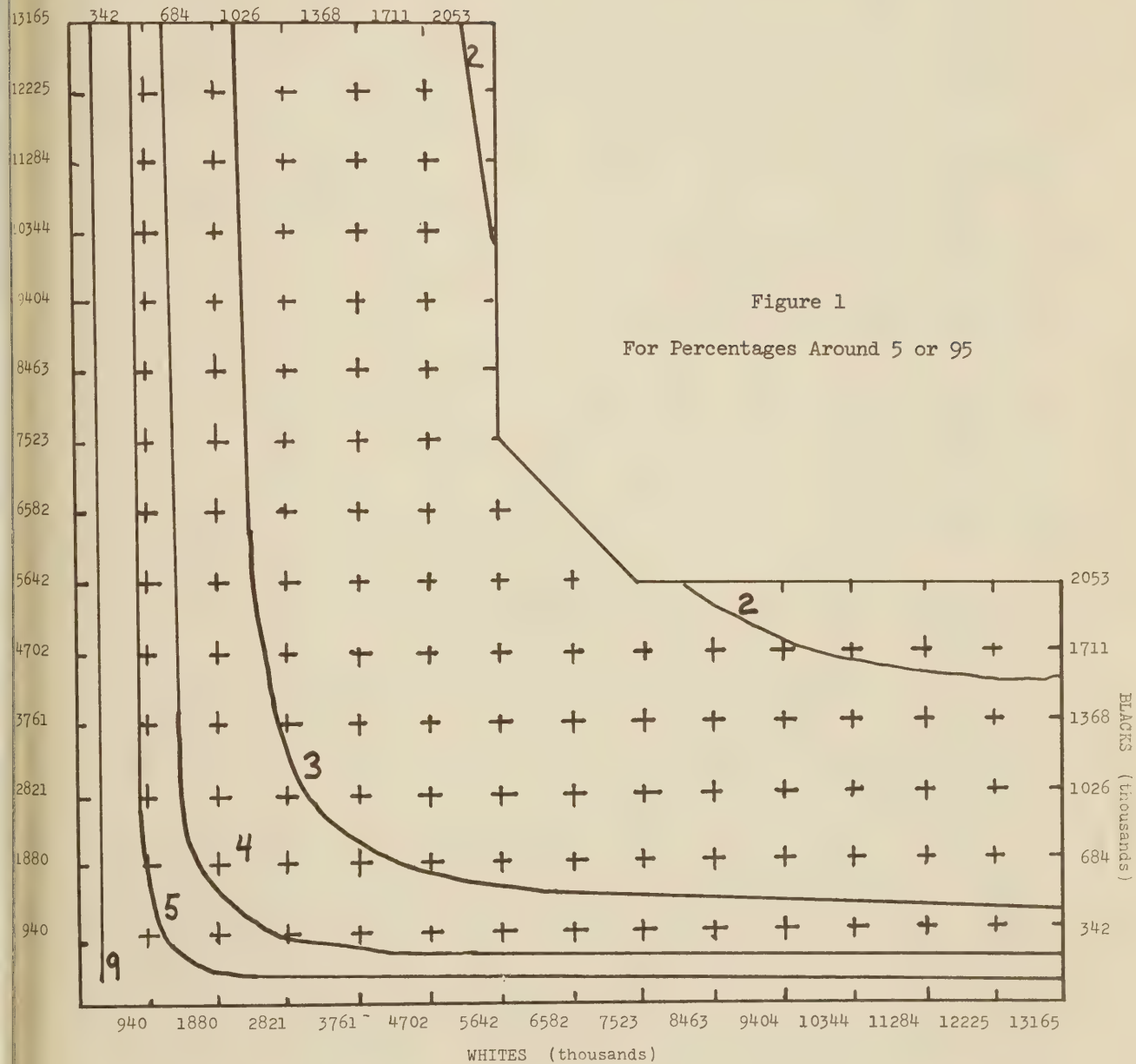
As an example of testing for the significance of a difference between the two color groups, consider the following. The data in our study show that for young men in the age cohort 21 to 26, 97 percent of the blacks (on a base of 639,000) and 92 percent of the whites (on a base of 5,377,000) are in the labor force. To determine whether this intercolor difference is statistically significant, Figure I is used because the midpoint (94.4 percent) between the two percentages is closer to 95 than 90.⁴ Entering this graph at 639,000 on the vertical axis for blacks (calibrated on the right hand side of the figure) and at 5,377,000 on the horizontal axis for whites provides a coordinate which lies to the northeast of the 5 percent curve. Thus, the 5 percentage point difference in labor force participation rates is significant.

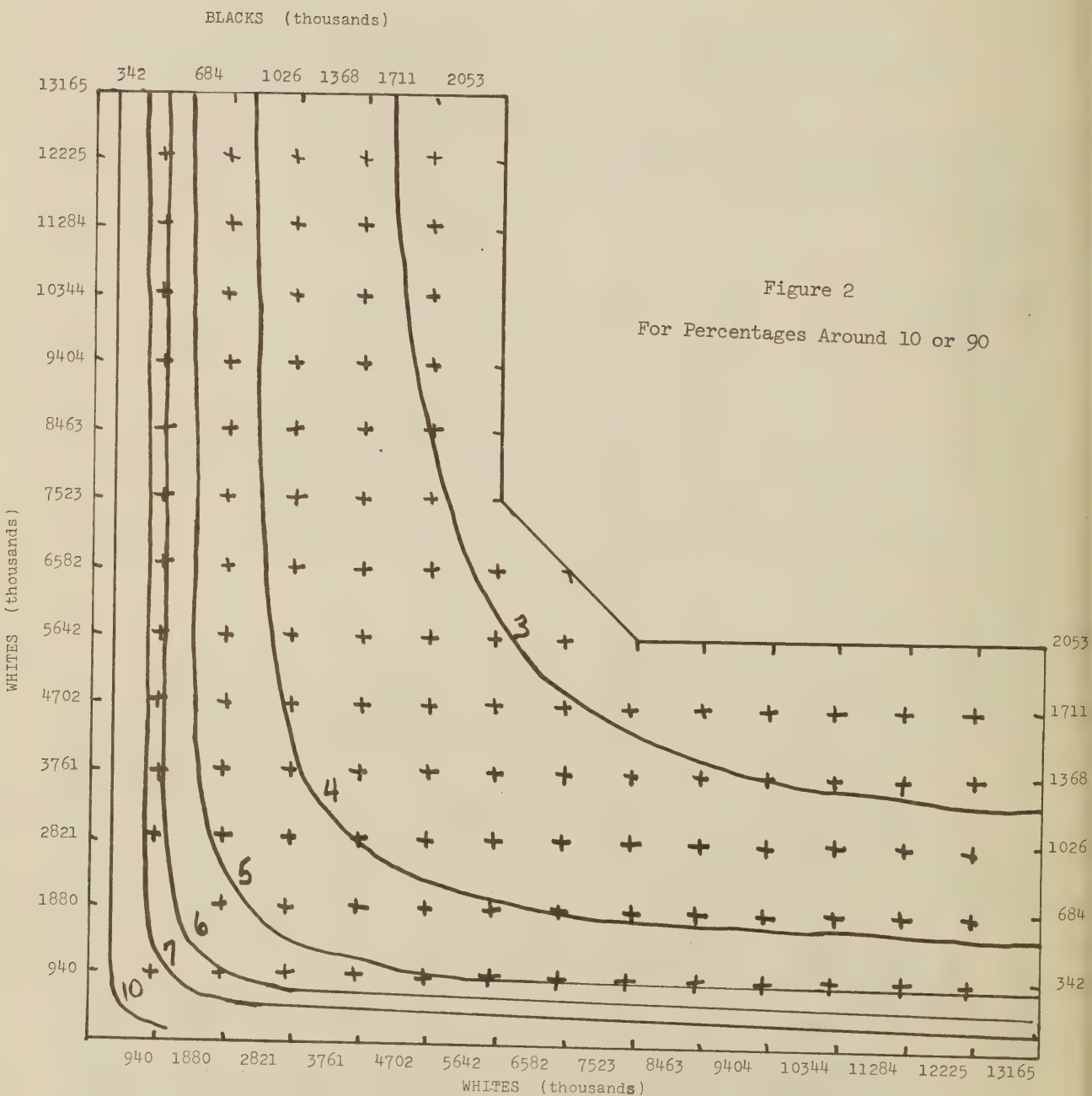
2 In another report by the staff of this Center (Belton M. Fleisher and Richard D. Porter, The Labor Supply of Males 45-59 (April 1970), Appendix B, pp. 92-110) it was argued that unadjusted standard errors (as opposed to the adjusted standard errors discussed in footnote 1) could be used to test for the significance of the coefficients in a linear regression. Clearly this argument applies to tests for the significance of the difference between proportions, and, as a result, the techniques used in this report are currently being altered. Thus the graphs should be interpreted as providing only a rough and conservative estimate of the difference required for significance.

3 Each of the curves in the graphs of this appendix illustrates a functional relationship between bases expressed in terms of actual sample cases. For convenience, however, the axes of the graphs are labeled in terms of blown-up estimates which simply reflect numbers of sample cases multiplied by a weighting factor.

4 If both percentages are less (greater) than 50 and the midpoint between the two percentages is less (greater) than the percentage for which the curves were constructed, the actual differences necessary for significance will be slightly less than those shown on the curve. The required differences shown on the curves understate the actual differences necessary for significance when both percentages are less (greater) than 50 and the midpoint is greater (less) than the percentage for which the curves were constructed.

BLACKS (thousands)

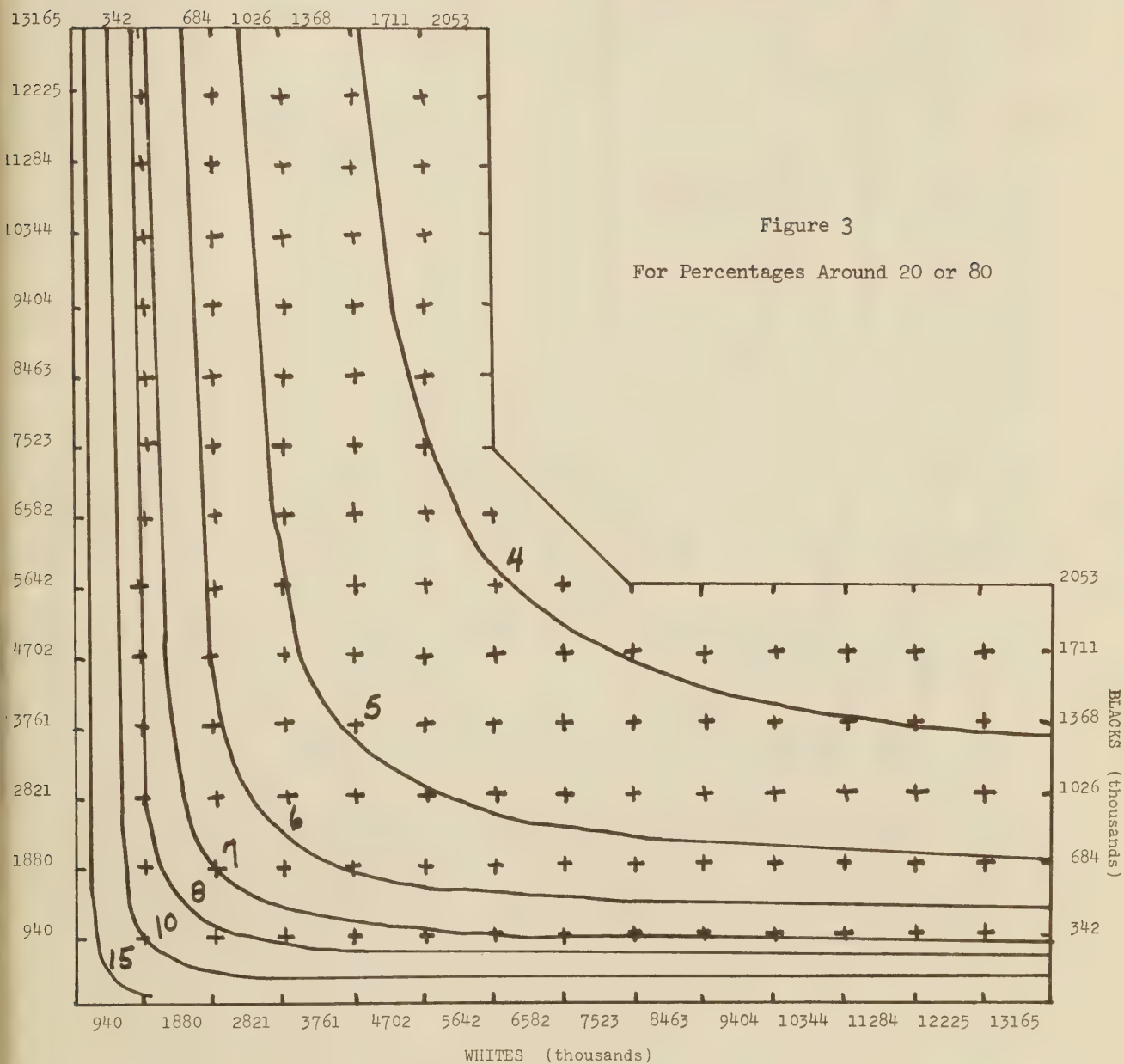




BLACKS (thousands)

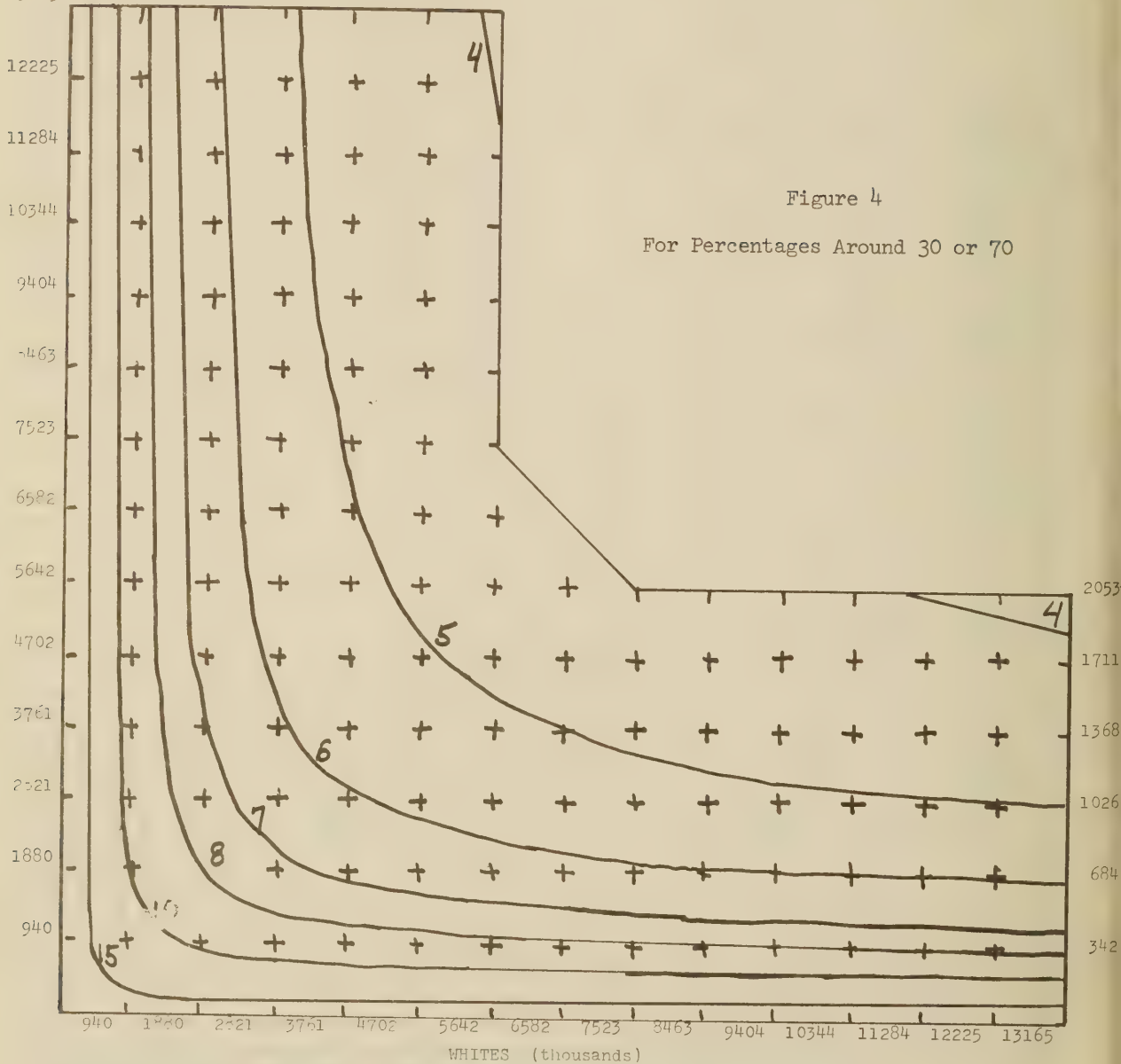
Figure 3

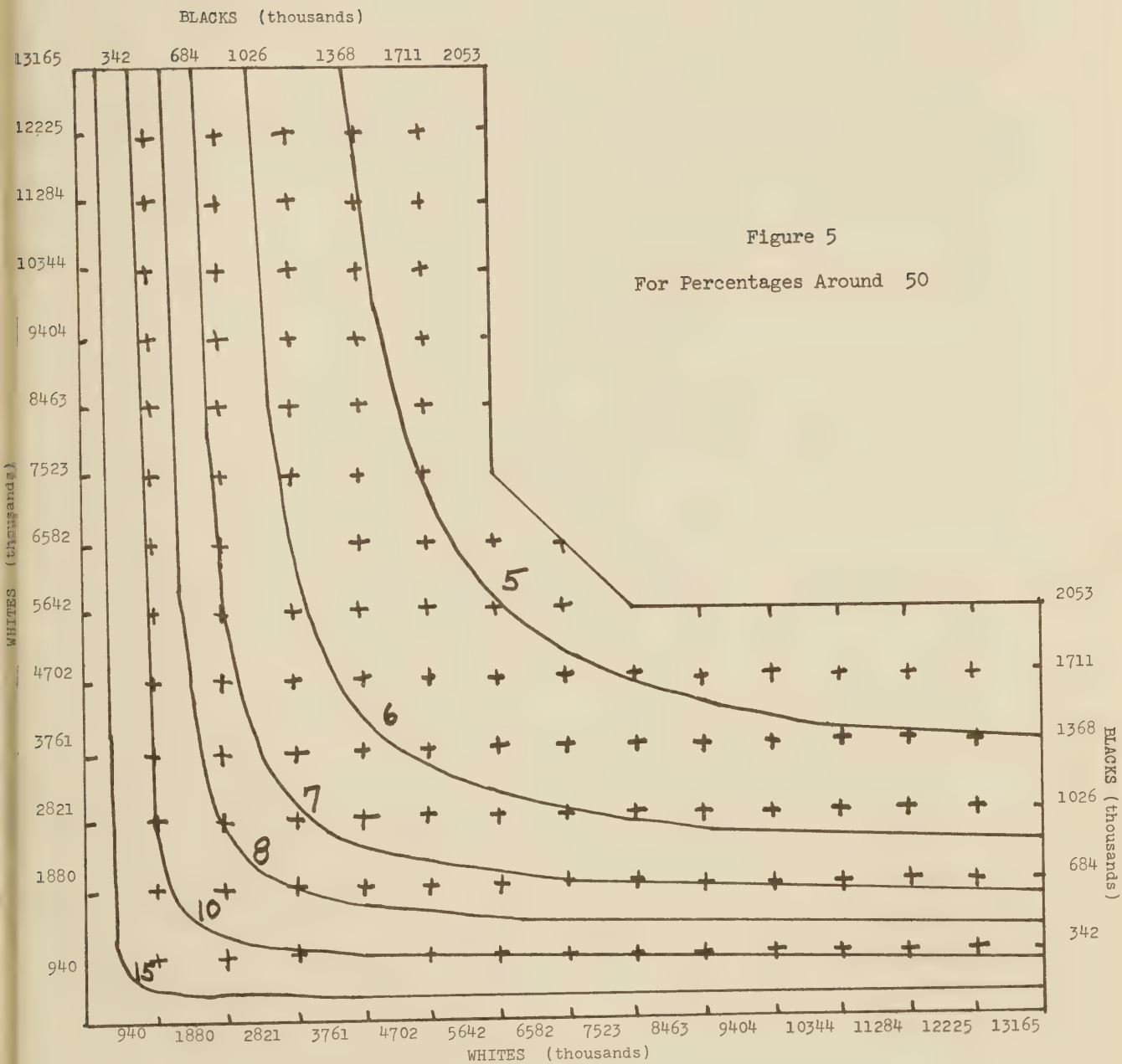
For Percentages Around 20 or 80



BLACKS (thousands)

13165 342 684 1026 1368 1711 2053





1968 INTERVIEW SCHEDULE

NOTICE - Your report to the Census Bureau is confidential by law (Title 13 U.S. Code). It may be seen only by sworn Census employees and may be used only for statistical purposes.

FORM LGT-221
(8-29-68)

U.S. DEPARTMENT OF COMMERCE
BUREAU OF THE CENSUS

NATIONAL LONGITUDINAL SURVEYS
SURVEY OF WORK EXPERIENCE
OF YOUNG MEN

1968

☐ Respondent a noninterview in 1967 - GO to page 23

RECORD OF CALLS

Date	Time	Comments
1.	a.m. p.m.	
2.	a.m. p.m.	
3.	a.m. p.m.	
4.	a.m. p.m.	

METHODS OF LOCATING RESPONDENT WHO HAS MOVED

	Successful	Unsuccessful
<input type="checkbox"/> New occupants		
<input type="checkbox"/> Neighbors		
<input type="checkbox"/> Apartment house manager		
<input type="checkbox"/> Post office		
<input type="checkbox"/> School		
<input type="checkbox"/> Persons listed on Information Sheet		
<input type="checkbox"/> Other - Specify		

RECORD OF INTERVIEW

Interview time		Date completed	Interviewed by
Began	Ended		
a.m. p.m.	a.m. p.m.		

NONINTERVIEW REASON

☐ Unable to contact respondent - Specify _____

6 ☐ Temporarily absent - Give return date _____

7 ☐ In Armed Forces - Specify release date _____

8 ☐ Institutionalized - Specify type _____

9 ☐ Refused _____

0 ☐ Deceased _____

A ☐ Other - Specify _____

TRANSCRIPTION FROM HOUSEHOLD RECORD CARD

Item 13 - Marital status of respondent (verified)

- | | | |
|--|-------------------------------------|--|
| 1 <input type="checkbox"/> Married, spouse present | 3 <input type="checkbox"/> Widowed | 5 <input type="checkbox"/> Separated |
| 2 <input type="checkbox"/> Married, spouse absent | 4 <input type="checkbox"/> Divorced | 6 <input type="checkbox"/> Never married |

If respondent has moved, enter new address

1. Number and street	
2. City	3. County
4. State	5. ZIP code

I. EDUCATIONAL STATUS

1. Are you attending or enrolled in regular school?	1. 1 <input type="checkbox"/> Yes — ASK 2 2 <input type="checkbox"/> No 7 When were you last enrolled? Month _____ Year _____ <i>SKIP to Check Item B</i>
2a. What grade are you attending?	2a. 1 Elementary 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 2 High school 1 2 3 4 3 College 1 2 3 4 5 6+
b. Are you enrolled as a full-time or part-time student?	b. 1 <input type="checkbox"/> Full-time 2 <input type="checkbox"/> Part-time
CHECK ITEM A	<i>Refer to item 80R on Information Sheet</i> 1 <input type="checkbox"/> Respondent not in school in 1967 — ASK 3 2 <input type="checkbox"/> Respondent in school in 1967 — SKIP to Check Item C
CHECK ITEM B	<i>Refer to item 80R on Information Sheet</i> 1 <input type="checkbox"/> Respondent in school in 1967 — SKIP to Check Item F on page 4 2 <input type="checkbox"/> All others — SKIP to 23, page 6
3a. At this time last year, you were not enrolled in school. How long had you been out of school before returning? b. Why did you return? c. In what curriculum are you enrolled?	3a. <div style="border: 1px solid black; height: 20px; width: 100%;"></div> Years _____ b. <div style="border: 1px solid black; height: 20px; width: 100%;"></div> _____ c. <div style="border: 1px solid black; height: 20px; width: 100%;"></div> _____ <div style="text-align: right;"><i>SKIP to 5</i></div>
CHECK ITEM C	<i>Refer to item 80R on Information Sheet</i> 1 <input type="checkbox"/> Respondent in high school in 1967, college now — SKIP to 5 2 <input type="checkbox"/> Other — ASK 4
4. Are you attending the same school as you were at this time last year?	4. 1 <input type="checkbox"/> Yes — SKIP to 10 2 <input type="checkbox"/> No — ASK 5
5. What is the name of the school you now attend?	5. _____ _____
6. Where is this school located?	6. <div style="border: 1px solid black; height: 20px; width: 100%;"></div> City _____ County _____ State _____
7. Is this school public or private?	7. 1 <input type="checkbox"/> Public 2 <input type="checkbox"/> Private
8. When did you enter this school?	8. Month _____ Year _____

I. EDUCATIONAL STATUS – Continued

**CHECK
ITEM D**

Refer to item 80R on Information Sheet

- 1 ☐ Respondent in college I now – *SKIP to 15a*
2 ☐ Respondent in high school I now } *SKIP to 23, page 6*
3 ☐ Respondent not in school in 1967 }
4 ☐ Other – *ASK 9*

9. Why did you change schools?

9.

10. Would you say you now like school more, about the same, or less than you did last year?

10. 1 ☐ More } *ASK 11*
2 ☐ Less }
3 ☐ About the same – *SKIP to 12*

11. Why do you like it more (less)?

11.

12. Are you enrolled in the same curriculum now as you were last year?

12. 1 ☐ Yes { 2 ☐ College – *SKIP to 15a*
3 ☐ High school } *SKIP to 23, page 6*
4 ☐ Elementary }
5 ☐ No – *ASK 13*

13. In what curriculum are you enrolled now?

13.

14. How did you happen to change your curriculum?

14.

☐ Respondent not in college – *SKIP to Check Item E*

15a. How much is the full-time tuition this year at the college you attend?

15a. \$ _____

b. Do you have a scholarship, fellowship, assistantship, or other type of financial aid this year?

- b. 1 ☐ Yes – *ASK c*
2 ☐ No – *SKIP to Check Item E*

c. What kind?

- c. 1 ☐ Scholarship 4 ☐ Loan
2 ☐ Fellowship 5 ☐ Other – *Specify*
3 ☐ Assistantship

d. How much is it per year?

d. \$ _____

Notes

I. EDUCATIONAL STATUS – Continued

CHECK ITEM E

Refer to item 80R on Information Sheet

- 1 ☐ Respondent in college 3–6 in 1967 – *Ask 16a*
 2 ☐ Other – *SKIP to 23, page 6*

16a. Have you received a degree since last year at this time?

b. What degree was it?

c. In what field did you receive your degree?

d. Why did you decide to continue your education after receiving this degree?

16a. 1 ☐ Yes – *Ask b*

x ☐ No – *SKIP to 23, page 6*

b. 1 ☐ Bachelor's (B.A., B.S., A.B.)

2 ☐ Master's (M.S., M.B., M.B.A.)

3 ☐ Doctor's (Ph.D.)

4 ☐ Other – *Specify* _____

c. _____

d. _____

SKIP to 23, page 6

CHECK ITEM F

Refer to item 80R on Information Sheet

- 1 ☐ Respondent in high school 1-3 last year – *ASK 17a*
 2 ☐ Respondent in high school 4 last year – *SKIP to 18a*
 3 ☐ Respondent in college 1-3 last year – *SKIP to 20a*
 4 ☐ Respondent in college 4+ last year – *SKIP to 21a, page 6*
 5 ☐ Respondent in elementary school last year – *ASK 17a*

17a. At this time last year, you were attending your _____ year of high school. Did you complete that year?

b. Why did you drop out of high school?

c. Do you expect to return?

d. When do you expect to return?

17a.

1 ☐ Yes

2 ☐ No

b. _____

c. 1 ☐ Yes – *ASK d*

x ☐ No – *SKIP to 25a, page 7*

d. _____

SKIP to 23, page 6

18a. Did you graduate from high school?

b. Why not?

18a. 1 ☐ Yes – *SKIP to Check Item G*

2 ☐ No – *ASK b*

b. _____

CHECK ITEM G

Refer to item 81R on Information Sheet

- 1 ☐ Respondent had planned to enter college when interviewed in 1967 – *ASK 19a*
 2 ☐ Respondent had not planned to enter college when interviewed in 1967 – *SKIP to 23, page 6*
 3 ☐ Respondent not asked about educational goal – *SKIP to 23, page 6*

Notes

I. EDUCATIONAL STATUS - Continued

19a. When we talked to you last year, you said you planned to go to college. Have your plans changed?

b. What caused your plans to change?

c. Why are you presently not enrolled in college?

d. When do you plan to enroll in college?

19a. 1 ☐ Yes - ASK b

2 ☐ No - SKIP to c

b. 1 ☐ Poor grades, lacked ability, wasn't accepted because of low grades, etc.

2 ☐ Economic reasons (couldn't afford, had to work instead, unable to obtain financial assistance)

3 ☐ Disliked school, lost interest, had enough school

4 ☐ Military service

5 ☐ Personal health reasons

6 ☐ Other - Specify _____
SKIP to d

c. 1 ☐ Economic reasons (couldn't afford, have to work, unable to obtain financial assistance, etc.)

2 ☐ Was rejected or turned down

3 ☐ Waiting to be accepted by a school

4 ☐ Military service

5 ☐ Personal health reasons

6 ☐ Other - Specify _____

d.

Month _____ Year _____ - SKIP to 23

x ☐ Don't plan to enroll - SKIP to 25a

20a. Last year at this time you were in college. Why did you decide to drop out?

b. Do you expect to return?

c. When do you think you will return?

20a.

b. 1 ☐ Yes - ASK c

x ☐ No - SKIP to 25a

c.

SKIP to 23

Notes

I. EDUCATIONAL STATUS – Continued

21a. Last year at this time you were in college.
Did you receive a degree?

b. Why did you decide to drop out?

c. Do you expect to return?

d. When?

21a. 1 ☐ Yes – SKIP to 22a

2 ☐ No – ASK b

b.

c. 1 ☐ Yes – ASK d

2 ☐ No – SKIP to 25a

d.

SKIP to 23

22a. What degree did you receive?

b. In what field of study did you receive
your degree?

22a. 1 ☐ Bachelor's (B.A., B.S., A.B.)

2 ☐ Master's (M.S., M.B., M.B.A.)

3 ☐ Doctor's (Ph.D.)

4 ☐ Other – Specify

b.

23. How much more education would you like to get?

23. 1 High school ☐ 1 ☐ 2 ☐ 3 ☐ 4

2 College { ☐ 2 yrs. (complete junior college)
☐ 4 yrs. (graduate from 4-year college)
☐ 6 yrs. (master's degree or equivalent)
☐ 7+ yrs. (Ph.D. or professional degree)

CHECK
ITEM H

Refer to item 81R on Information Sheet

1 ☐ Educational goal different from 1967 – ASK 24

2 ☐ Educational goal same as in 1967 – SKIP to 25a

3 ☐ Respondent not asked about educational goal in 1967 – SKIP to 25a

24. Last year you said you would like to get
(amount of education indicated in 1967).

Why have you changed your plans?

24.

Notes

I. EDUCATIONAL STATUS – Continued

☐ Respondent attends school – *SKIP to 26*

25a. Since this time last year have you taken any training courses or educational programs of any kind, either on the job or elsewhere?

b. What kind of training or education program did you take? (*Specify below, then mark one box*)

c. Where did you take this training course? (*Specify below, then mark one box*)

d. How long did you attend this course or program?

e. How many hours per week did you spend on this training?

f. Did you complete this program?

g. Why didn't you complete this program?

h. Why did you decide to get more training?

i. Do you use this training on your present job?

25a. 1 ☐ Yes – *ASK b*

x ☐ No – *SKIP to 26*

b. 1 ☐ Professional, technical

2 ☐ Managerial

3 ☐ Clerical

4 ☐ Skilled manual

5 ☐ Other

c. 1 ☐ Business college, technical institute

2 ☐ Company training school

3 ☐ Correspondence course

4 ☐ Regular school

5 ☐ Other

d.

Months _____

e. 1 ☐ 1-4

2 ☐ 5-9

3 ☐ 10-14

4 ☐ 15-19

5 ☐ 20 or more

f. 1 ☐ Yes – *When?*

Month _____ Year _____ *SKIP to h*

2 ☐ No, dropped out – *When?*

Month _____ Year _____ *ASK g*

3 ☐ No, still enrolled – *SKIP to h*

g. 1 ☐ Found a job

2 ☐ Interfered with school

3 ☐ Too much time involved

4 ☐ Lost interest

5 ☐ Too difficult

6 ☐ Other – *Specify* _____

h. 1 ☐ To obtain work

2 ☐ To improve current job situation

3 ☐ To get better job than present one

4 ☐ In military service

5 ☐ Other – *Specify* _____

i. 1 ☐ Yes

2 ☐ No

3 ☐ Not employed

II. CURRENT LABOR FORCE STATUS

26. What were you doing most of LAST WEEK – working, going to school, or something else?

- 1 ☐ WK – Working – *SKIP to 27b*
 2 ☐ J – With a job but not at work
 3 ☐ LK – Looking for work
 4 ☐ S – Going to school
 5 ☐ U – Unable to work – *SKIP to 30*
 6 ☐ OT – Other – *Specify*

27c. Do you **USUALLY** work 35 hours or more a week at this job?

- 1 ☐ Yes – What is the reason you worked less than 35 hours LAST WEEK?
 2 ☐ No – What is the reason you **USUALLY** work less than 35 hours a week?

(Mark the appropriate reason)

- 01 ☐ Slack work
 02 ☐ Material shortage
 03 ☐ Plant or machine repair
 04 ☐ New job started during week
 05 ☐ Job terminated during week
 06 ☐ Could find only part-time work
 07 ☐ Labor dispute
 08 ☐ Did not want full-time work
 09 ☐ Full-time work week under 35 hours
 10 ☐ Attends school
 11 ☐ Holiday (legal or religious)
 12 ☐ Bad weather
 13 ☐ Own illness
 14 ☐ On vacation
 15 ☐ Too busy with housework, personal business, etc.
 16 ☐ Other – *Specify*

(If entry in 27c *SKIP* to 31a and enter job worked at last week.)

27a. Did you do any work at all LAST WEEK, not counting work around the house?

- 1 ☐ Yes x ☐ No – *SKIP to 28a*

b. How many hours did you work LAST WEEK at all jobs?

CHECK ITEM I

Respondent worked—

- 1 ☐ 49 hours or more – *SKIP to 31a and enter job worked at last week*
 2 ☐ 1–34 hours – *ASK c*
 3 ☐ 35–48 hours – *ASK d and e*

d. Did you lose any time or take any time off LAST WEEK for any reason such as illness, holiday, or slack work?

- 1 ☐ Yes – How many hours did you take off?
 2 ☐ No – *Go to 27e*

NOTE: Correct item 27b if lost time not already deducted; if item 27b is reduced below 35 hours, ask item c, otherwise skip to 31a.

e. Did you work any overtime or at more than one job LAST WEEK?

- 1 ☐ Yes – How many extra hours did you work?
 2 ☐ No

NOTE: Correct Item 27b if extra hours not already included and SKIP to 31a.

Notes

(If “J” in 26, skip to 28b)

28a. Did you have a job (or business) from which you were temporarily absent or on layoff LAST WEEK?

- 1 ☐ Yes x ☐ No – *SKIP to 29a*

b. Why were you absent from work LAST WEEK?

- 1 ☐ Own illness
 2 ☐ On vacation
 3 ☐ Bad weather
 4 ☐ Labor dispute
 5 ☐ New job to begin within 30 days } *ASK 29c and 29d(2)*
 6 ☐ Temporary layoff (less than 30 days) }
 7 ☐ Indefinite layoff (30 days or more or no definite recall date) } *ASK 29d(3)*
 8 ☐ School interfered
 9 ☐ Other – *Specify*

c. Are you getting wages or salary for any of the time off LAST WEEK?

- 1 ☐ Yes
 2 ☐ No
 3 ☐ Self-employed

d. Do you usually work 35 hours or more a week at this job?

- 1 ☐ Yes 2 ☐ No

(Go to 31a and enter job held last week.)

II. CURRENT LABOR FORCE STATUS - Continued

(If "LK" in 26, SKIP to 29b)

29a. Have you been looking for work during the past 4 weeks?

1 ☐ Yes x ☐ No - SKIP to 30

b. What have you been doing in the last 4 weeks to find work?

(Mark all methods used; do not read list.)

x ☐ Nothing - SKIP to 30

Checked with {

- 1 ☐ State employment agency
- 2 ☐ Private employment agency
- 3 ☐ Employer directly
- 4 ☐ Friends or relatives

5 ☐ Placed or answered ads

6 ☐ School employment service

7 ☐ Other - Specify - e.g., MDTA, union or professional register, etc.

c. Why did you start looking for work? Was it because you lost or quit a job at that time (Pause) or was there some other reason?

1 ☐ Lost job 4 ☐ Wanted temporary work
 2 ☐ Quit job 5 ☐ Other - Specify in notes
 3 ☐ Left school

d. 1) How many weeks have you been looking for work?
 2) How many weeks ago did you start looking for work?
 3) How many weeks ago were you laid off?

Number of weeks _____

e. Have you been looking for full-time or part-time work?

1 ☐ Full-time 2 ☐ Part-time

f. Is there any reason why you could not take a job LAST WEEK?

1 ☐ Yes {

- 2 ☐ Needed at home
- 3 ☐ Temporary illness
- 4 ☐ Going to school
- 5 ☐ Other - Specify →

6 ☐ No

g. When did you last work at a regular job or business lasting two consecutive weeks or more, either full-time or part-time?

1 ☐ October 15, 1967 or later -

Specify month _____ and SKIP to 31a.

2 ☐ All others - SKIP to 42b, page 13

30. When did you last work at a regular job or business lasting two consecutive weeks or more, either full-time or part-time?

1 ☐ October 15, 1967 or later -
Specify month and year

ASK
31a

2 ☐ Before October 15, 1967 and "unable" now and "unable" in item 82R on the Information Sheet - SKIP to 61a, page 20

3 ☐ All others - SKIP to 42a, page 13

DESCRIPTION OF JOB OR BUSINESS

31a. For whom did you work? (Name of company, business, organization, or other employer)

b. In what city and State is . . . located?

City _____

State _____

c. What kind of business or industry is this?

(For example, TV and radio manufacturer, retail shoe store, State Labor Department, farm.)

d. Were you -

1 ☐ P - An employee of PRIVATE company, business, or individual for wages, salary, or commissions?
 2 ☐ G - A GOVERNMENT employee (Federal, State, county, or local)?
 3 ☐ O - Self-employed in OWN business, professional practice, or farm?

(If not a farm)

Is this business incorporated?

1 ☐ Yes 2 ☐ No

4 ☐ WP - Working WITHOUT PAY in family business or farm?

e. What kind of work were you doing?

(For example, electrical engineer, stock clerk, typist, farmer.)

f. What were your most important activities or duties?

(For example, types, keeps account books, files, sells cars, operates printing press, cleans buildings, finishes concrete)

g. What was your job title?

II. CURRENT LABOR FORCE STATUS - Continued

**CHECK
ITEM J**

Refer to item 83R on Information Sheet

- x ☐ Current employer same as last year (Entry in 31a and Information Sheet item 83R are the same) - SKIP to Check Item K
- 2 ☐ All other - ASK 32a

32a. How did you find out about this job?

b. When did you start working at this job or business?

☐ Respondent enrolled in school - SKIP to Check Item K

c. Is this the first job at which you worked at least one month since you stopped going to school full time?

d. When did you take your first job at which you worked at least a month after you stopped going to school full time?

- 32a. 1 ☐ School employment service (or counselor)
 2 ☐ State employment agency
 3 ☐ Private employment agency
 4 ☐ Checked directly with employer
 5 ☐ Newspaper ads
 6 ☐ Friends or relatives
 7 ☐ Other - Specify _____

b.

Month _____ Year _____

c.

- 1 ☐ Yes - SKIP to Check Item K
 2 ☐ No - ASK d

d.

Month _____ Year _____

**CHECK
ITEM K**

- 1 ☐ "P" or "G" in 31d - ASK 33a
 x ☐ "O" or "WP" in 31d - SKIP to Check Item L

33a. Altogether, how much do (did) you usually earn at your present (last) job before deductions?

(If amount given per hour, record dollars and cents, otherwise, round to nearest dollar.)

b. How many hours per week do (did) you usually work on this job?

c. Do (did) you receive extra pay when you work(ed) over a certain number of hours?

d. After how many hours do (did) you receive extra pay?

e. For all hours worked over (entry in d) are (were) you paid straight time, time and one-half, double time or what? (Mark as many as apply)

33a.

- 1 ☐ Hour 5 ☐ Month
 2 ☐ Day 6 ☐ Year
 \$ _____ per: 3 ☐ Week 7 ☐ Other - Specify _____
 4 ☐ Biweekly _____

b.

Hours _____

c.

- 1 ☐ Yes - ASK d
 2 ☐ No
 3 ☐ No but receive compensating time off
 4 ☐ Never work overtime
- } SKIP to Check Item L

d.

1 ☐ Hours _____ per day

2 ☐ Hours _____ per week

e.

- 1 ☐ Straight time
 2 ☐ Time and one-half
 3 ☐ Double time
 4 ☐ Compensating time off
 5 ☐ Other - Specify _____

**CHECK
ITEM L**

Respondent currently is in:

- 1 ☐ Labor Force Group A ("WK" or "J" in 26 or "Yes" in 27a or 28a) - GO to Check Item M
 2 ☐ All others - SKIP to Check Item N

III. WORK EXPERIENCE AND ATTITUDES

CHECK ITEM M

Current employer same as last year (*Entries in 31a and item 83R of the Information Sheet are the same*) AND

- 1 ☐ a. Current kind of work SAME as last year (*Entries in 31e and item 83R of the Information Sheet are the same*) – SKIP to 35a
- 2 ☐ b. Current kind of work DIFFERENT from last year (*Entries in 31e and item 83R of the Information Sheet are different*) – ASK 34
- 3 ☐ All others – SKIP to 36a

34. I see that you are not doing the same kind of work you were doing at this time last year.
Why would you say you are no longer doing this kind of work?

34. 1 ☐ Promotion
2 ☐ Job was eliminated
3 ☐ "Bumped" from job
4 ☐ Other – Specify _____

35a. During the past 12 months, have you worked any place other than (*entry in 31a*)?

(*If more than one, ask about longest*)

b. For whom did you work?

c. Were you working for (*entry in 31a*) and (*entry in 35b*) at the same time?

35a. 1 ☐ Yes – How many other places? _____ ASK b

2 ☐ No – SKIP to 40a

b. _____

c. 1 ☐ Yes – ASK 40a

2 ☐ No – SKIP to 39b

CHECK ITEM N

1 ☐ Respondent was in Labor Force Group B or C last year (*Item 82 on Information Sheet*) – SKIP to 36b

2 ☐ All others – SKIP to 37a

36a. Have you held any jobs other than (*entry in 31a*) in the past 12 months?

b. Last year at this time you weren't working. Have you worked at all since then?

c. Now, I'd like to know about the longest job you held. For whom did you work?

36a. 1 ☐ Yes – How many other jobs? _____ SKIP to c
x ☐ No – SKIP to 40a

b. 1 ☐ Yes – How many jobs? _____ ASK c
x ☐ No – SKIP to 42a

c. 1 ☐ _____ SKIP to 39b
o ☐ Same as current (last) job in 31a – SKIP to 40a

37a. Last year at this time you were working at (*name of company in item 83R on Information Sheet*). When did you stop working there?

b. Why did you happen to leave that job?

c. Last year, you were working as (*kind of work in item 83R on Information Sheet*). Did you do any other kind of work at that job before you left it.

37a. Month _____ Year _____

b. _____

c. 1 ☐ Yes – How many other kinds? _____ ASK 38a
2 ☐ No – SKIP to 38b

(*If more than one, ask about longest*)
38a. What kind of work did you do?

b. How many jobs have you held since you stopped working at (*name of company in item 83R on Information Sheet*) and started your present (last) job?

38a. _____

b. Number _____
o ☐ None – SKIP to 40a

III. WORK EXPERIENCE AND ATTITUDES – Continued

(If more than one, ask about longest)
39a. Now I'd like to know about the job you had since you stopped working at *(entry in 83R)*.

For whom did you work?

b. What kind of business or industry was that?

c. Were you –

(1) an employee of **PRIVATE** company, business, or individual for wages, salary, or commission?

(2) a **GOVERNMENT** employee (Federal, State, county, or local)?

(3) self-employed in **OWN** business, professional practice, or farm?

(4) working **WITHOUT PAY** in family business or farm?

d. How many hours per week did you usually work?

e. When did you **START** working at that job?

f. When did you **STOP** working at that job?

g. How did you happen to leave that job?

h. What kind of work were you doing when you left that job?

i. Did you ever do any other kind of work at that job?

j. What kind of work?
(If more than one, ask about longest)

39a. 1 ☐ _____

o ☐ Same employer as 31a – *SKIP to 40a.*

b. _____

c. _____

1 ☐ P – Private

2 ☐ G – Government

3 ☐ O – Self-employed

4 ☐ WP – Without pay

d. _____

Number of hours _____

e. _____

Month _____ Year _____

f. _____

Month _____ Year _____

g. _____

h. _____

i. _____

1 ☐ Yes – How many other kinds? _____ *ASK j*

2 ☐ No – *SKIP to 40a*

j. _____

40a. During the past 12 months, in how many different weeks did you do any work at all.

☐ Respondent not in school – *SKIP to c.*

b. Were these during summer vacation from school, or during the school year?

c. During the weeks that you worked in the last 12 months, how many hours per week did you usually work?

40a. Number of weeks _____

oo ☐ None – *SKIP to 42a*

b. 1 ☐ Summer vacation only

2 ☐ School year only

3 ☐ Both

c. 1 ☐ 1–4

5 ☐ 35–40

2 ☐ 5–14

6 ☐ 41–48

3 ☐ 15–24

7 ☐ 49 or more

4 ☐ 25–34

III. WORK EXPERIENCE AND ATTITUDES - Continued

CHECK ITEM O

- 1 ☐ 52 weeks in 40a - ASK 41a
2 ☐ 1-51 weeks in 40a - SKIP to 41b

41a. Did you lose any full weeks of work during the past 12 months because you were on layoff from a job or lost a job?

b. You say you worked (entry in 40a) weeks during the past 12 months. In any of the remaining (52 minus entry in 40a) weeks were you looking for work or on layoff from a job?

c. Were all of these weeks in one stretch?

☐ Respondent not in school - SKIP to Check Item P

d. Were these during summer vacation from school, or during the school year?

41a.

1 ☐ Yes - How many weeks? _____
(Adjust item 40a and skip to 41c)

x ☐ No - SKIP to Check Item P

b.

1 ☐ Yes - How many weeks? _____

x ☐ No - SKIP to Check Item P

c.

1 ☐ Yes, 1

2 ☐ No, 2

3 ☐ No, 3 or more

d.

1 ☐ Summer vacation only

2 ☐ School year only

3 ☐ Both

} SKIP to Check Item P

42a. Even though you did not work during the past 12 months, did you spend any time trying to find work or on layoff from a job?

b. How many different weeks during the last 12 months were you looking for work or on layoff from a job?

☐ Respondent not in school - SKIP to Check Item P

c. Were these during summer vacation from school, or during the school year?

42a. 1 ☐ Yes - ASK b

2 ☐ No - SKIP to 43

b.

Number of weeks _____

c.

1 ☐ Summer vacation only

2 ☐ School year only

3 ☐ Both

CHECK ITEM P

Refer to items 40a, 41a, 41b, 42b

1 ☐ All weeks accounted for - SKIP to Check Item Q

2 ☐ Some weeks not accounted for - ASK 43

43. Now let me see. During the past 12 months, there were about (52 minus entries in items 40a, 41a, 41b, 42b) _____ weeks that you were not working or looking for work. What would you say was the main reason that you were not looking for work?

(Specify below, then mark one box.)

43.

1 ☐ Ill or disabled and unable to work

2 ☐ In school

3 ☐ Couldn't find work

4 ☐ Vacation

5 ☐ In Armed Forces

6 ☐ Other

Notes

III. WORK EXPERIENCE AND ATTITUDES - Continued

CHECK ITEM Q

Respondent is in -

- 1 ☐ Labor Force Group A ("WK" or "J" in 26 or "Yes" in 27a or 28a) - SKIP to Check Item R
- 2 ☐ Labor Force Group B ("LK" in 26 or "Yes" in 29a) - SKIP to 46a
- 3 ☐ Labor Force Group C (All others) - ASK 44a

44a. Do you intend to look for work of any kind in the next 12 months?

Respondent's comments: _____

b. When do you intend to start looking for work?

c. What kind of work do you think you will look for?

d. What will you do to find work?

44a. 1 ☐ Yes - definitely } ASK b
2 ☐ Yes - probably }

3 ☐ Maybe - What does it depend on? _____ } SKIP to 45a

4 ☐ No } SKIP to 45a
5 ☐ Don't know }

b. Month _____

c. _____

- d. 1 ☐ Check with school employment service (or counselor)
2 ☐ Check with state employment agency
3 ☐ Check with private employment agency
4 ☐ Check directly with employer
5 ☐ Place or answer newspaper ads
6 ☐ Check with friends or relatives
7 ☐ Other - Specify _____

45a. Why would you say that you are not looking for work at this time?

b. If you were offered a job by some employer in THIS AREA, do you think you would take it?

Respondent's comments: _____

c. How many hours per week would you be willing to work?

d. What kind of work would it have to be?

e. What would the wage or salary have to be?

- 45a. 1 ☐ School
2 ☐ Personal, family reasons
3 ☐ Health reasons
4 ☐ Waiting to be called into military service
5 ☐ Believes no work available
6 ☐ Does not want to work at this time of year
7 ☐ Other or no reason

b. 1 ☐ Yes
2 ☐ Maybe - What does it depend on? _____ } ASK c-e

3 ☐ No - Why not? _____
SKIP to 54, page 16

- c. 1 ☐ 1 - 4 5 ☐ 35 - 40
2 ☐ 5 - 14 6 ☐ 41 - 48
3 ☐ 15 - 24 7 ☐ 49 or more
4 ☐ 25 - 34

d. _____

- e. 1 ☐ Hour 5 ☐ Month
2 ☐ Day 6 ☐ Year
\$ _____ per: 3 ☐ Week 7 ☐ Other - Specify
4 ☐ Biweekly

SKIP to 54, page 16

III. WORK EXPERIENCE AND ATTITUDES - Continued

46a. What type of work are you looking for?

b. What would the wage or salary have to be for you to be willing to take it?

c. Are there any restrictions, such as hours or location of job that would be a factor in your taking a job?

d. What are these restrictions?

46a.

b.

1 ☐ Hour 5 ☐ Month
2 ☐ Day 6 ☐ Year
\$ _____ per: 3 ☐ Week 7 ☐ Other - Specify
4 ☐ Biweekly

c. 1 ☐ Yes - ASK d

x ☐ No - SKIP to 54

d.

SKIP to 54

**CHECK
ITEM R**

Respondent currently is in Labor Force Group A:

- 1 ☐ Was in Labor Force Group B last year (Item 82R on Information Sheet) - SKIP to 48
2 ☐ Was in Labor Force Group C last year (Item 82R on Information Sheet) - ASK 47
3 ☐ All others - SKIP to Check Item T

47. At this time last year, you were not looking for work. What made you decide to take a job?

47. 1 ☐ Recovered from illness
2 ☐ Bored
3 ☐ Completed education
4 ☐ Needed money
5 ☐ Other - Specify _____

48. How do you feel about the job you have now. Do you -

Respondent's comments: _____

48. 1 ☐ like it very much?
2 ☐ like it fairly well?
3 ☐ dislike it somewhat?
4 ☐ dislike it very much?

49. What are the things you like best about your job?

49.

1

2

3

50. What are the things about your job that you don't like?

50.

1

2

3

III. WORK EXPERIENCE AND ATTITUDES – Continued

51. Suppose someone **IN THIS AREA** offered you a job in the same line of work you're in now. How much would the new job have to pay for you to be willing to take it?

(If amount given per hour, record dollars and cents. Otherwise, round to the nearest dollar.)

Respondent's comments: _____

51.

01 ☐ Hour 05 ☐ Month

02 ☐ Day 06 ☐ Year

\$ _____ per: 03 ☐ Week 07 ☐ Other – Specify _____

04 ☐ Biweekly _____

08 ☐ I wouldn't take it at any conceivable pay

09 ☐ I would take a steady job at same or less pay

10 ☐ Would accept job; don't know specific amount

**CHECK
ITEM S**

x ☐ Respondent is enrolled in school this year – *SKIP to 54*

1 ☐ All others – *ASK 52*

52. What if this job were **IN SOME OTHER PART OF THE COUNTRY** – how much would it have to pay in order for you to be willing to take it?

(If amount given per hour, record dollars and cents. Otherwise, round to the nearest dollar.)

Respondent's comments: _____

52.

01 ☐ Hour 05 ☐ Month

02 ☐ Day 06 ☐ Year

\$ _____ per: 03 ☐ Week 07 ☐ Other – Specify _____

04 ☐ Biweekly _____

08 ☐ I wouldn't take it at any conceivable pay

09 ☐ I would take a steady job at same or less pay

10 ☐ Would accept job; don't know specific amount

11 ☐ Depends on location, cost of living

SKIP to 54

**CHECK
ITEM T**

Respondent is not in school and:

1 ☐ Works for a different employer from 1967 (*Items 83R on Information Sheet and 31a of this questionnaire differ*) – *ASK 53a*

2 ☐ Works for the same employer as in 1967 – *SKIP to 53b*

3 ☐ Respondent enrolled in school – *SKIP to 54*

53a. How do you feel about the job you have now. Do you –

Respondent's comments: _____

b. Would you say you like your present job more, less, or about the same as (the job you held) last year?

c. What would you say is the main reason that you like your present job (more, less)?

53a. 1 ☐ like it very much?

2 ☐ like it fairly well?

3 ☐ dislike it somewhat

4 ☐ dislike it very much?

b. 1 ☐ More } *ASK c*

2 ☐ Less }

3 ☐ Same – *SKIP to 54*

c.

Notes

III. WORK EXPERIENCE AND ATTITUDES – Continued

54. We would like to find out whether people's outlook on life has any effect on the kind of jobs they have, the way they look for work, how much they work, and matters of that kind. On each of these cards is a pair of statements numbered 1 and 2. For each pair, please select the **ONE** statement which is closer to your opinion. In addition, tell us whether the statement you select is **MUCH CLOSER** to your opinion or **SLIGHTLY CLOSER**.

In some cases you may find that you believe both statements, in other cases you may believe neither one. Even when you feel this way about a pair of statements, select the one statement which is more nearly true in your opinion.

Try to consider each pair of statements separately when making your choices; do not be influenced by your previous choices.

- a. 1 ☐ Many of the unhappy things in people's lives are partly due to bad luck.

- 2 ☐ People's misfortunes result from the mistakes they make.

Is this statement much closer or slightly closer to your opinion?

1 ☐ Much

2 ☐ Slightly

- b. 1 ☐ In the long run, people get the respect they deserve in this world.

- 2 ☐ Unfortunately, an individual's worth often passes unrecognized no matter how hard he tries.

Is this statement much closer or slightly closer to your opinion?

1 ☐ Much

2 ☐ Slightly

- c. 1 ☐ Without the right breaks, one cannot be an effective leader.

- 2 ☐ Capable people who fail to become leaders have not taken advantage of their opportunities.

Is this statement much closer or slightly closer to your opinion?

1 ☐ Much

2 ☐ Slightly

- d. 1 ☐ Becoming a success is a matter of hard work; luck has little or nothing to do with it.

- 2 ☐ Getting a good job depends mainly on being in the right place at the right time.

Is this statement much closer or slightly closer to your opinion?

1 ☐ Much

2 ☐ Slightly

- e. 1 ☐ What happens to me is my own doing.

- 2 ☐ Sometimes I feel that I don't have enough control over the direction my life is taking.

Is this statement much closer or slightly closer to your opinion?

1 ☐ Much

2 ☐ Slightly

III. WORK EXPERIENCE AND ATTITUDES – Continued

- 54f. 1 ☐ When I make plans, I am almost certain that I can make them work.

- 2 ☐ It is not always wise to plan too far ahead, because many things turn out to be a matter of good or bad fortune anyhow.

Is this statement much closer or slightly closer to your opinion?

1 ☐ Much

2 ☐ Slightly

- g. 1 ☐ In my case, getting what I want has little or nothing to do with luck.

- 2 ☐ Many times we might just as well decide what to do by flipping a coin.

Is this statement much closer or slightly closer to your opinion?

1 ☐ Much

2 ☐ Slightly

- h. 1 ☐ Who gets to be boss often depends on who was lucky enough to be in the right place first.

- 2 ☐ Getting people to do the right thing depends upon ability; luck has little or nothing to do with it.

Is this statement much closer or slightly closer to your opinion?

1 ☐ Much

2 ☐ Slightly

- i. 1 ☐ Most people don't realize the extent to which their lives are controlled by accidental happenings.

- 2 ☐ There is really no such thing as "luck."

Is this statement much closer or slightly closer to your opinion?

1 ☐ Much

2 ☐ Slightly

- j. 1 ☐ In the long run, the bad things that happen to us are balanced by the good ones.

- 2 ☐ Most misfortunes are the result of lack of ability, ignorance, laziness, or all three.

Is this statement much closer or slightly closer to your opinion?

1 ☐ Much

2 ☐ Slightly

- k. 1 ☐ Many times I feel that I have little influence over the things that happen to me.

- 2 ☐ It is impossible for me to believe that chance or luck plays an important role in my life.

Is this statement much closer or slightly closer to your opinion?

1 ☐ Much

2 ☐ Slightly

IV. FUTURE JOB PLANS

55. Now I would like to talk to you about your future job plans. What kind of work would you like to be doing when you are 30 years old?	55. <div style="border-bottom: 1px solid black; height: 1.2em; margin-bottom: 5px;"></div> <div style="border-bottom: 1px solid black; height: 1.2em; margin-bottom: 5px;"></div> <div style="border-bottom: 1px solid black; height: 1.2em; margin-bottom: 5px;"></div> <div style="margin-top: 10px;"> 0 <input type="checkbox"/> Same as present job 9 <input type="checkbox"/> Don't know </div>
---	--

**CHECK
ITEM U**

- 1 ☐ Respondent's future job plans are the same as 1967 (*Entries in 55 and item 84R on the Information Sheet are the same*) – *SKIP to Check Item V*
- 2 ☐ Respondent's future job plans differ from 1967 (*Entries in 55 and item 84R of Information Sheet differ*) – *ASK 56*
- 3 ☐ Respondent not asked about future job plans in 1967 – *SKIP to Check Item V*

56. Last year when we talked to you, you said you thought that you'd like to be (<i>entry in item 84R of Information Sheet</i>). Why would you say you have changed your plans?	56. <div style="border-bottom: 1px solid black; height: 1.2em; margin-bottom: 5px;"></div> <div style="border-bottom: 1px solid black; height: 1.2em; margin-bottom: 5px;"></div> <div style="border-bottom: 1px solid black; height: 1.2em; margin-bottom: 5px;"></div>
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V. HEALTH

**CHECK
ITEM V**

- 1 ☐ Respondent is currently in school – *ASK 57a*
- 2 ☐ Respondent is not currently enrolled in school – *SKIP to 57b*

57a. Do you have any health problems that limit in any way your activity in school? b. Do you have any health problems that limit in any way the amount or kind of work you can do? c. Do you have any health problems that in any way limit all your other activities?	57a. 1 <input type="checkbox"/> Yes – <i>SKIP to 58</i> 2 <input type="checkbox"/> No – <i>ASK b</i> b. 1 <input type="checkbox"/> Yes – <i>SKIP to 58</i> 2 <input type="checkbox"/> No – <i>ASK c</i> c. 1 <input type="checkbox"/> Yes – <i>ASK 58</i> 2 <input type="checkbox"/> No – <i>SKIP to 59a</i>
58. How long have you been limited in this way? <input type="checkbox"/> Respondent not married – <i>SKIP to 61a</i>	58. Years _____
59a. Does your wife's health limit the amount or kind of work she can do? b. Does your wife's health limit the amount or kind of housework she can do?	59a. 1 <input type="checkbox"/> Yes – <i>SKIP to 60</i> 2 <input type="checkbox"/> No – <i>ASK b</i> b. 1 <input type="checkbox"/> Yes – <i>ASK 60</i> 2 <input type="checkbox"/> No – <i>SKIP to 61a</i>
60. How long has she been limited in this way?	60. Years _____

Notes

VI. ASSETS AND INCOME

61a. So far as your overall financial position is concerned, would you say you are better off, about the same, or worse off now than you were at this time last year?

b. In what ways are you (better, worse) off?

61a. 1 ☐ Same — *SKIP to Check Item W*
 2 ☐ Better off } *ASK b*
 3 ☐ Worse off }

b. _____

CHECK ITEM W

- x ☐ Respondent is NOT head of household — *SKIP to 63a*
 1 ☐ Respondent is head of household — *ASK 62a*

62a. In the last 12 months, did you (or your wife) receive financial assistance from any of your relatives?

b. From whom?

c. How much did you receive?

62a. 1 ☐ Yes — *ASK b-c*
 2 ☐ No — *SKIP to 63a*

b. _____

c. \$ _____

Now I would like to ask a few questions about your income in the last 12 months.

63a. How much did you (or your wife) receive from wages, salary, commissions, or tips from all jobs, before deductions for taxes or anything else?

b. Did you (or your wife) receive any income from working on your own or in your own business or farm?

\$ _____ less \$ _____ = \$ _____
 (Gross Income) (Expenses) (Net Income)

c. Did you (or your wife) receive any unemployment compensation?

d. Did you (or your wife) receive any other income, such as rental income, interest or dividends, income as a result of disability or illness, etc.?

Respondent:

Wife:

☐ Not married

63a. \$ _____
☐ None

\$ _____
☐ None

b. ☐ Yes — How much?

☐ Yes — How much?

\$ _____
☐ No

\$ _____
☐ No

c. ☐ Yes
 (1) How many weeks?

☐ Yes
 (1) How many weeks?

(2) How much?

(2) How much?

\$ _____
☐ No

\$ _____
☐ No

d. ☐ Yes — How much?

☐ Yes — How much?

\$ _____
☐ No

\$ _____
☐ No

CHECK ITEM X

- 1 ☐ Respondent (and wife) lives alone — *SKIP to 64b*
 2 ☐ All others — *ASK 64a (If two or more RELATED respondents in household, ask 64a-b only once, and transcribe answers from the first to the other questionnaires.)*

64a. In the past 12 months, what was the total income of ALL family members living here?
 (Show flashcard)

b. Did anyone in this family receive any welfare or public assistance in the last 12 months?

64a. 01 ☐ Under \$1,000 07 ☐ \$6,000–\$7,499
 02 ☐ \$1,000–\$1,999 08 ☐ 7,500– 9,999
 03 ☐ 2,000– 2,999 09 ☐ 10,000–14,999
 04 ☐ 3,000– 3,999 10 ☐ 15,000–24,999
 05 ☐ 4,000– 4,999 11 ☐ 25,000 and over
 06 ☐ 5,000– 5,999

b. 1 ☐ Yes
 2 ☐ No

VII. FAMILY BACKGROUND

1 ☐ Respondent lives with parents – *SKIP to Check Item Y*

65a. How many persons, not counting yourself (or your wife), are dependent upon you for at least one-half of their support?

b. Do any of these dependents live somewhere else other than here at home with you?

c. What is their relationship to you?

65a. Number _____

0 ☐ None – *SKIP to Check Item Y*

b. 1 ☐ Yes – How many? _____ – *ASK c*

2 ☐ No – *SKIP to Check Item Y*

c. _____

CHECK ITEM Y

Refer to name and address label on cover page

x ☐ Respondent lives in same area (SMSA or county) as in 1967 – *SKIP to 68a*

2 ☐ Respondent lives in different area (SMSA or county) than in 1967 – *ASK 66a*

66a. At this time last year you were living in (city in address on cover page). How many miles from here was that?

b. How did you happen to move here?

66a.

Miles _____

b. _____

1 ☐ Respondent currently in school – *SKIP to 68a*

67a. Did you have a job lined up here at the time you moved?

b. How many weeks did you look before you found work?

67a. 1 ☐ Yes, different from job held at time of move
2 ☐ Yes, same as job held at time of move
3 ☐ Yes, transferred job in same company
4 ☐ No – *ASK b*

SKIP to 68a

b. Weeks _____

00 ☐ Did not look for work

99 ☐ Still haven't found work

68a. What is your present draft classification?

b. (If 1-Y or 4-F) Why were you rejected?

68a.

00 ☐ Respondent is under 18 – *SKIP to Check Item Z*

b. 1 ☐ Failed both physical and written test
2 ☐ Failed physical test
3 ☐ Failed written test
4 ☐ Not accepted for other reasons
5 ☐ Don't know reason

Notes

VII. FAMILY BACKGROUND - Continued

CHECK ITEM Z

- 1 ☐ Father lives in household } *SKIP to Check Item AA*
 2 ☐ Father deceased
 3 ☐ Other - ASK 69a

69a. During the past 12 months, about how many weeks did your father work either full time or part time (not counting work around the house)?

b. Did your father usually work full time or part time?

c. What kind of work was he doing?
(If more than one, record the one worked at longest.)

69a.

Weeks _____

- 00 ☐ Did not work } *SKIP to Check Item AA*
 99 ☐ Don't know

b. 1 ☐ Full time

2 ☐ Part time

c.

--	--	--

CHECK ITEM AA

- 1 ☐ Mother lives in household } *SKIP to 71*
 2 ☐ Mother deceased
 3 ☐ Other - ASK 70a

70a. During the past 12 months, about how many weeks did your mother work either full time or part time (not counting work around the house)?

b. Did your mother usually work full time or part time?

c. What kind of work was she doing?
(If more than one, record the one worked at longest.)

70a.

Weeks _____

- 00 ☐ Did not work } *SKIP to 71*
 99 ☐ Don't know

b. 1 ☐ Full time

2 ☐ Part time

c.

--	--	--

Notes

NONINTERVIEWS IN 1967

Ask the following questions of all respondents who were noninterviews in 1967. Transcribe the answers to the appropriate item on the Information Sheet, then proceed with the regular interview.

A. Were you attending or enrolled in regular school at this time last year?

- 1 ☐ Yes — ASK B(1)
 2 ☐ No
 3 ☐ In Armed Forces

} SKIP to B(2)

B. (1) What grade were you attending at that time?

Transcribe entries to 80R

(2) What is the highest grade of regular school you have completed?

- 1 Elementary 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8
 2 High school 1 2 3 4
 3 College 1 2 3 4 5 6 7+

C. Were you working or looking for work at this time last year?

Transcribe entries to 82R as follows:

- 1 ☐ Working
 2 ☐ With a job, not at work
 3 ☐ Looking for work
 4 ☐ Unable to work
 5 ☐ In Armed Forces
 6 ☐ Other — Specify _____

} ASK D and E

END OF
QUESTIONS

1. Mark "Labor Force Group A" if box 1 or 2 is marked
2. Mark "Labor Force Group B" if box 3 is marked
3. Mark "Labor Force Group C" if box 6 is marked
4. Mark "Labor Force Group C — Armed Forces" if box 5 is marked
5. Mark "Unable to work" if box 4 is marked

D. For whom did you work?

E. What kind of work were you doing?

Transcribe entries to 83R

WHEN THE TRANSCRIPTION HAS BEEN COMPLETED, BEGIN THE REGULAR INTERVIEW WITH ITEM 1.

Now I have a few questions about the education and work experience of the other family members living here.

Line number	NAME List below all persons living here who are related to respondent. Enter the line number from the Household Record Card in column 71.	RELATIONSHIP TO RESPONDENT (Example; wife, son, father, brother, etc.).	AGE As of October 1, 1968	Persons 6-24 years old			Persons 14 years old and over		
				Is . . . attending or enrolled in school? Circle Y - Yes N - No	If "Yes" - What grade (year)? If "No" - What is the highest grade (year) . . . ever attended?	Did . . . finish this grade (year)?	In the past 12 months, how many weeks did . . . work either full- or part-time (not counting work around the house)?	In the weeks that . . . worked, how many hours did . . . usually work per week?	If person worked at all in last 12 months What kind of work was . . . doing in the past 12 months? (If more than one, record the longest)
71	72a	72b	72c	73	74	75	76	77	78
		Respondent							
				Y N		Y N			
				Y N		Y N			
				Y N		Y N			
				Y N		Y N			
				Y N		Y N			
				Y N		Y N			
				Y N		Y N			
				Y N		Y N			
				Y N		Y N			

79. Last year you mentioned (read names from item 85R on Information Sheet) as persons who will always know where you can be reached even if you move away. Is this still true? (If so, verify the addresses and telephone numbers and enter below. If not, enter information about other persons who will know the respondent's whereabouts.)

Name	Relationship to respondent	Address (Number, street, city, State, ZIP code)	Telephone number
1.			
2.			

**INFORMATION SHEET
DATA FROM 1967 INTERVIEW
WITH MALES 14 - 24**

Entry on 1967 Questionnaire

80R. Whether Respondent was attending or enrolled in school:

- ☐ Yes
☐ No
☐ In Armed Forces

Grade Respondent was attending OR Highest year of regular school completed:

- ☐ None 0
☐ Elem 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8
☐ High 1 2 3 4
☐ College 1 2 3 4 5 6 7+

81R. Respondent's educational goal:

- ☐ Not asked educational goal
☐ High 1 2 3 4
☐ College 2 4 6 7+

82R. Respondent's labor force status:

- ☐ Unable to work
☐ Labor Force Group A
☐ Labor Force Group B
☐ Labor Force Group C
☐ Labor Force Group C - Armed Forces

83R. Name of employer _____

Kind of work _____

84R. Kind of work desired at age 30: *(If said same as present job, specify occupation.)*

85R. Names and addresses of persons who will always know where Respondent can be reached:

1. _____

2. _____

WHERE TO GET MORE INFORMATION ABOUT MANPOWER PROGRAMS

For more information on manpower programs and services in your area, contact your Regional Manpower Administrator at the address listed below or the nearest office of your State employment service.

Location	States Served		
John F. Kennedy Fed. Bldg. Boston, Mass. 02203	Connecticut New Hampshire	Maine Rhode Island	Massachusetts Vermont
341 Ninth Avenue New York, N.Y. 10001	New Jersey Virgin Islands	New York	Puerto Rico
P. O. Box 8796 Philadelphia, Pa. 19101	Delaware Virginia	Maryland West Virginia	Pennsylvania
D.C. Manpower Administrator 14th and E Streets, NW. Washington, D.C. 20004	District of Columbia		
1371 Peachtree Street, NE. Atlanta, Ga. 30309	Alabama Kentucky South Carolina	Florida Mississippi Tennessee	Georgia North Carolina
219 South Dearborn Street Chicago, Ill. 60604	Illinois Minnesota	Indiana Ohio	Michigan Wisconsin
1100 Commerce Street Dallas, Tex. 75202	Arkansas Oklahoma	Louisiana Texas	New Mexico
911 Walnut Street Kansas City, Mo. 64106	Iowa Nebraska	Kansas	Missouri
1961 Stout Street Denver, Colo. 80202	Colorado South Dakota	Montana Utah	North Dakota Wyoming
450 Golden Gate Avenue San Francisco, Calif. 94102	Arizona Nevada Trust Territories	California American Samoa	Hawaii Guam
Arcade Plaza 1321 Second Avenue Seattle, Wash. 98101	Alaska Washington	Idaho	Oregon

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